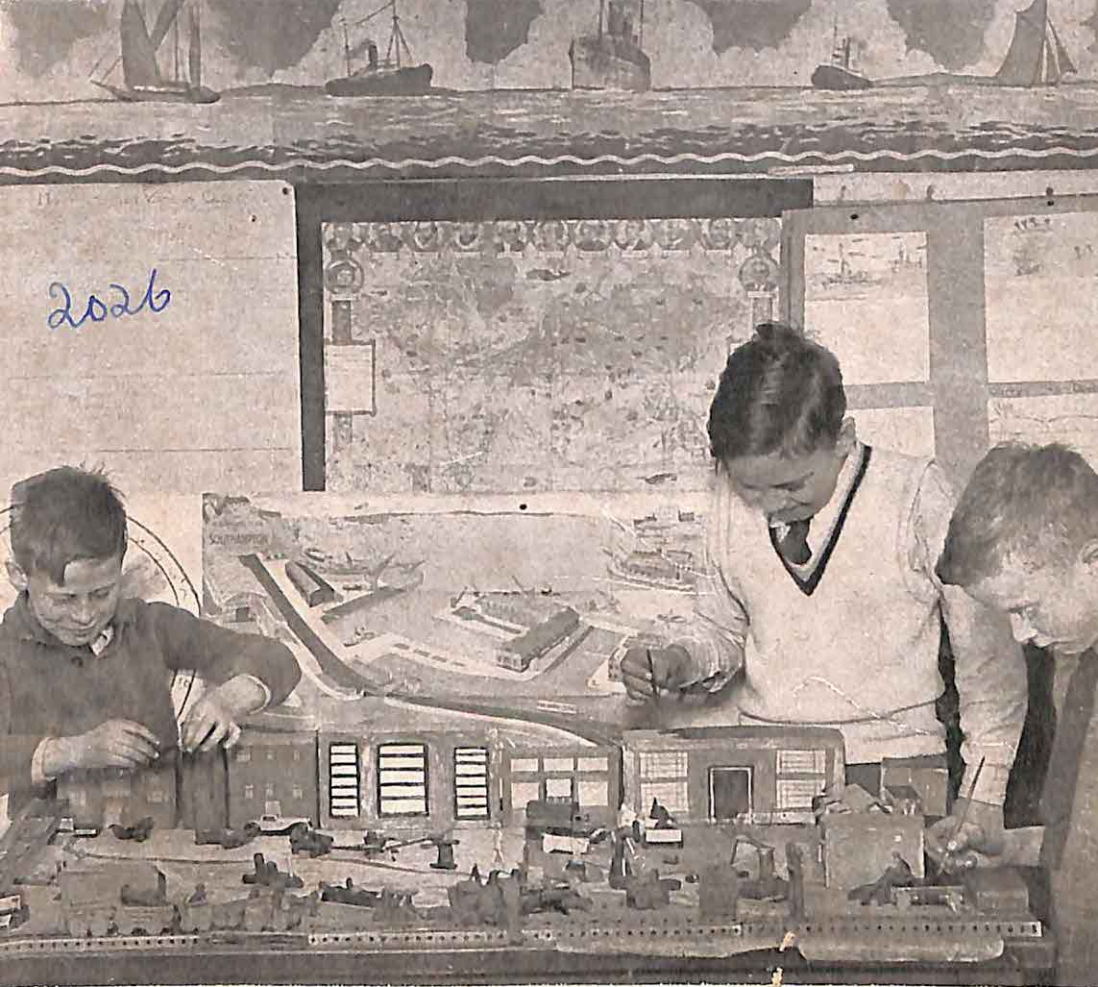


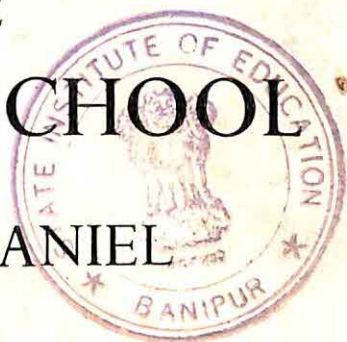


ACTIVITY

IN THE

PRIMARY SCHOOL

By M. V. DANIEL



2026 (5180)



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ACTIVITY IN THE
PRIMARY SCHOOL



[Frontispiece

PLATE I

FREE ACTIVITIES

Groups of seven-year-old children during one of their free periods. The little girls became interested in sewing and making dolls' clothes. The boys went to the 'Office' and played with tram tickets. Sometimes the boys were 'away from home' and free, therefore, to carry on their own activities

(pp. 188-189 and Table 10, facing p. 196)

2026

ACTIVITY IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

BY

M. V. DANIEL

Principal of Hereford Training College



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FOREWORD

IN the preface to the 1866 edition of *Divine and Moral Songs for Children*, Isaac Watts writes:

To all that are concerned in the education of children.

Dear Friends,

It is an awful and important charge committed to you. The wisdom and welfare of the succeeding generation are intrusted with you beforehand and depend much on your conduct.

It is to such as 'are concerned in the education of children' to-day that this book also is addressed, in the hope that it may be of some help to those who are setting out on a teacher's career, that it may give some encouragement to those who are fearful of breaking new ground and that it may prove the need for a different approach to those who still adhere to the traditional formal methods of Primary School education.

Little new will be found in the theories set out in the first part of the book; the principles of education laid down by educators of all ages are still far in advance of teaching practice. An attempt has been made, however, to show the implication of these principles to the education of children between seven and eleven years of age and to focus attention on the particular needs of that period of school life that has been so persistently neglected in the past.

To avoid frequent use of lengthy phrases such as 'upper section of the Primary School Stage', the term 'Primary' is used to indicate the period between the Infant stage and the 'over-eleven' stage, except in a few instances where the context makes its use as referring to the first phase of education evident. The term is synonymous, therefore, with the word 'Junior' associated with Hadow reorganization schemes and compares with the meaning assigned to it in the government publication *The Primary School*.

All the examples and descriptions in Part Two are taken from schools which, before the Act of 1944, would have been known as Public Elementary Schools.

My thanks are due to the many teachers who have allowed me to draw on their experience and illustrate from their experiments. In particular, I should like to express my great appreciation of the help and time given to me by Miss R. Armitage, Miss Hancock, Mr. Jarman, Miss M. Jones, Mr. Riley, Miss Stone, Miss Williams and Miss M. Wilson, without whose co-operation and that of their staff the second part of the book could not have been written. I am indebted, too, to Mr. Lee for his patience in taking the photographs and to Mrs. Davenport for the shorthand account of the Children's Parliament.

Finally I wish to say how grateful I am to the Manchester Education Authority, the Chief Education Officer, Mr. W. O. Lester Smith, and to my colleagues for their help and encouragement.

M. V. D.

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Part One

ACTIVITY RELATED TO
THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS
OF PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN



CHAPTER I

THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

The praises of my tongue
I offer to the Lord
That I was taught and learnt so young
To read his holy word.

On Learning to Read — ISAAC WATTS

IT is difficult to-day to imagine that there was ever a time when the whole theory of education could be condensed into the four jingling lines of a single quatrain. Yet the verse of Isaac Watts at the head of this chapter, written nearly a hundred and fifty years ago, did in fact embody the most advanced thought in England on the education of the common people during the eighteenth century, and it is only since 1870 that its influence has gradually ceased to be felt as a major factor in the formation of educational ideals.

One should not infer, of course, that we have moved away from the recognition of spiritual values in our thoughts on education, but it is that our attitude towards the teaching of young children has undergone a change. Our attention is focused, not on a system of education for children, but on the children themselves, and the words of the government report on the education of children up to eleven years of age admirably sum up our new attitude: 'the curriculum is to be thought of in terms of activity and experience rather than of knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored'.

These well-known words from *The Primary School*, so often quoted to-day, represent a new outlook on education and it can be regarded as a happy omen that they appear, not in a theoretical disquisition on education, but in an official document published by His Majesty's Stationery Office.

4 ACTIVITY IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

They are the first step in the liberation from successive forms of bondage in which Primary education has so long remained and it is the intention of this book to give some help to those who may wish to profit by this deliverance.

It may be wise, therefore, to look back over the past two hundred and fifty years and consider briefly what has constituted the bondage from which we may now escape and what are the foundations on which we must of necessity build our ideals of the future.

THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY

In the eighteenth century, schools were mainly established by voluntary religious societies. There were others, for example, the Dame Schools for poor children under the age of seven, which were set up by private individuals, but the education of the poorer classes as a whole was initiated by the religious bodies which sprang up at the beginning of the century. The greatest of these was probably the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge. Appalled at the 'growth of vice and debauchery'¹ the members of the Society set out to bring a knowledge of the Bible to the children of the poor and to provide such instruction as would enable them to read the Bible for themselves. Another motive, too, lay behind their work, originating in the great development of industry during the century. Young children were greatly in demand as cheap labour in factories and it was the shocking conditions under which they worked that prompted religious societies to establish schools in many parts of industrial England.

Opposition from Factory Owners

Both factory owners and parents objected to day schools. The former because they interfered with their plans for cheap child labour, and the latter because they reduced the child's contribution to the family budget. The S.P.C.K. countered

¹ H. WODEHOUSE. *A Survey of the History of Education*, p. 143.

these objections by establishing Sunday Schools and by introducing training in specific occupations into the *Day Schools*.

In 1719 the S.P.C.K. sent a circular letter to all their correspondents on this point. The letter ran:

Next to improving the Minds of the Poor in all necessary Christian Knowledge, the Society are desirous, and do again earnestly intreat all their Correspondents, to use their utmost Endeavour to get some Kind of Labour added to the Instruction given to Children in the Charity Schools; as *Husbandry* in any of its Branches, *Spinning*, *Sewing*, *Knitting*, or any other useful Employment; to which the particular Manufactures of their respective Countries may lead them. This will bring them to the Habit of Industry, as well as prepare them for the Business by which they are afterwards to fulfil in the World, and effectually obviate an Objection against the Charity Schools, that they tend to take poor children off from those servile Offices which are necessary in all communities, and for which the wise Governor of the World has by his Providence designed for them.

This technical training in skills which was directly related to the work in the factories or to occupations at home was the first step towards vocational training as part of school education.

The Syllabus

The schools established by these societies were for children of seven to twelve years of age. They covered, therefore, the Junior School period, but they bore no resemblance to the twentieth-century schools for such children. For example, no child spent the whole five years from seven to twelve at school. Two years were considered quite long enough to learn the rudiments of reading and many children did not spend more than a year and a half at school.

The syllabus in all schools set up by religious societies was based on Religion. The School Master taught the children but the work was supervised and examined by the minister of the

parish. The catechism had to be learnt by heart, training was given in moral behaviour and the children were taken to church twice every Sunday and on other Holy Days. Reading was taught in four stages: It started with the alphabet, followed by the learning of syllables, which, when chanted by groups of children, sometimes produced the effect of nonsense rhymes. For example, in *A Child's First Book* written at the end of the century, the learner was required to repeat lines such as

ag	eg	ig	og	ug
ak	ek	ik	ok	uk
fa	fe	fi	fo	fu
ga	ge	gi	go	gu

There is admittedly a certain delight which children experience in chanting nonsense rhymes, but even the most diligent child must have felt that the enforced repetition of the eleven pages of syllables of which these four lines form a microscopic section was a task that outran his natural pleasure. He must surely have longed for the more romantic versions that still are the treasures of childhood to-day:

Fa, Fe, Fi, Fo, Fum.

I smell the blood of an Englishman,

and perhaps he would have been right in his preference.

The third stage consisted of reading sentences related to the child's duty. This was followed by studying the Bible itself, from which passages had to be memorized. Passages from the Prayer Book, too, had to be learnt by heart. In addition to this instruction in reading the Bible the boys were taught writing and arithmetic and the girls needlework, knitting and household duties.

In the Schools of Industry, religious knowledge and reading were always included in the curriculum. Training in crafts took the place of writing and arithmetic and the particular crafts taught varied with the character of the local industries. In some of these schools the academic work and the industrial crafts were carried on on alternate days, but more often part

of the day was occupied with one side of the curriculum and the rest of the day with the other.

The curriculum was designed to give children a standard of moral behaviour by which they could guide their lives and skill in a particular craft through which they could rise above the level of poverty that prevailed amongst the mass of the people at that time. Compared with modern ideas there was little real educational value in the work, but a start had been made and from it has developed slowly Primary School education of to-day.

Towards the end of the century the demand for State established schools and equality of educational opportunity for all was becoming more and more insistent. At the same time experiments in school organization, staffing, curricula and methods of teaching were set on foot. Reading books underwent a change. Topics likely to be of particular interest to children were introduced. The language was simplified, and although the tales generally pointed the moral, the books of Mrs. Barbauld and Maria Edgeworth mark a big step forward in the education of Junior children.

1800 to 1870

During the nineteenth century the increasing interest in education and the concern felt by many at the state of ignorance of the children of the poor is shown by the number of Bills, directly or indirectly affecting education, which were brought before Parliament. Several more societies were established with the object of providing education, chiefly in religious knowledge, and many pamphlets and books on educational matters were published.¹

Progress in Educational Practice

The development of the education of children between seven and eleven during the first seventy years of the century

¹ See Appendix I, p. 287.

was mainly in the direction of organization, methods of teaching and curricula. Great figures such as Dr. Andrew Bell, Joseph Lancaster, Robert Owen, Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth and David Stow contributed much towards these aspects of education.

Dr. Bell and Joseph Lancaster devised rigid and mechanical methods of organization and teaching. They added little to educational theory but brought system and order into the unorganized schools of the time. Many of the practices they introduced are regarded with horror to-day; but this phase of rigidity and formality was probably a necessary stage in the growth of the educational system and provided a sound foundation from which the wider conception of education, characteristic of the twentieth century, could develop.

The schools were arranged on a fixed and unalterable plan. In Bell's type (the National School Type)¹ there was one large schoolroom. Round the walls were long desks for writing, so placed that children working at them were sitting back to the room. The Head Master's desk was also against the wall, generally at the end so that he had a greater command of the whole room. There might also be some forms but the centre of the room was bare of furniture. Children were divided into classes of approximately thirty, boys and girls being kept separate. Each group of thirty was arranged standing, in the form of three sides of a square, with the fourth side open to the walls of the room. On this fourth side stood the monitor or 'teacher' and the assistant monitor or 'assistant teacher'. The monitor was chosen from the top class in the school; his age, therefore, might lie between eleven and fourteen years. The assistant monitor was the best boy or girl in the group being taught; he might be any age, therefore, between seven and eleven. The Head Master supervised and organized, but delegated the work of teaching to the monitor and assistant monitor. Reading books of the type described earlier were in use and sentences were repeated until they were known by heart. Other subjects were taught on the question and answer

¹ See Appendix II, p. 291.

pattern, and the books used for this purpose were arranged in the form of 'Questions' to be asked by the monitor, followed by the 'Answer' which had to be memorized by the children. The 'question and answer' method of teaching had been in use for hundreds of years. Amongst early examples of such books is the Church catechism which is still used in religious teaching. An even earlier example is *Salomon and Saturnus* by Ælfric, which was in use in schools at the end of the tenth century, and from which the following passage is taken:

7. Tell me the substance of which Adam, the first man, was made?

I tell thee, of eight pounds by weight.

8. Tell me, what are they called?

I tell thee, the first was a pound of earth, of which his flesh was made; the second was a pound of fire, hence his blood was red and hot; the third was a pound of wind, and thence his breathing was given him; the fourth was a pound of welkin, thence was his unsteadiness of mood given him; the fifth was a pound of grace, whence were given him his fat and growth; the sixth was a pound of blossoms, whence was given him the variety of his eyes; the seventh was a pound of dew, whence he got his sweat; the eighth was a pound of salt, and hence were his tears salt. . . .¹

Teaching by such a method required no knowledge of subject matter and no skill in presentation.

The Lancasterian plan differed from that of Dr. Bell only in details. The general principles of teaching were the same; so also were subjects and methods of presentation. In Lancaster's plan² desks, twelve to fourteen feet long, were arranged in a block down the middle of the room. Each desk seated sixteen to twenty children. Semi-circles were marked on the floor of the room, the walls forming the straight side of the semi-circle. The children were divided into small groups of eight or ten called 'drafts', arranged round the semi-circles,

¹ J. M. Kemble's Translation (1848).

² See Appendix II, p. 291.

facing the wall on which a lesson sheet was hung. The monitors, one in charge of each 'draft', taught reading from these sheets, a procedure in some respects not unlike the group method of teaching reading to-day.

Both Bell and Lancaster drew up schemes in reading and arithmetic on a 'grade' system. Bell had six to eight grades according to the size of the school; Lancaster had eight grades for reading and ten for arithmetic, and, in his scheme, a child did not begin to learn arithmetic until he had reached the fifth grade in reading. We may see in these grades the probable forerunners of the 'standards' devised later by the government for purposes of awarding grants. It is obvious that with these methods of teaching in force no originality was required on the part of the School Master. Every school had to follow the set scheme and the Master's only duty was to see that the monitors carried it through.

The work of these two men, Bell and Lancaster, created a highly systematized scheme of education both as regards organization and methods of teaching. Their ideas were imposed ruthlessly on all schools. Lancaster, prompted by the need for economy, drew up schemes in such detail and gave such specific instructions for teaching that it was hardly necessary to have a teacher at all; in fact he boasted that: 'Any boy who can read can teach . . . although he knows nothing about it.'¹ It was with a view to economy that he instituted 'reading sheets' instead of books and used slates for writing instead of paper.

Progress in Educational Theory

Robert Owen, Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth and David Stow had much wider views on education and under their influence the curriculum was broadened to include basket making, woodwork, observation lessons, geography, experimental science, natural history, singing, sewing, dancing and drill.

¹ J. LANCASTER. *Improvements in Education*, p. 84.

At the same time the idea of learning by doing was advocated and in Infants Schools concrete material was introduced.

Robert Owen's influence was greatest in Infant Schools. It was to David Stow that improvements in the schools for older children were due. He looked upon education as a training for leading a moral life, and for this purpose he thought freedom and oral teaching should take the place of the highly organized classes in the schoolrooms and the monitorial system. He severely criticized the question and answer type of book which was essential for the success of the monitorial system, writing in 1840: 'Books are eagerly sought after with question and answer set in regular order — the most lazy and inefficient of all modes of intellectual teaching. School books ought principally to be used as texts, and the greater amount of information communicated orally.'¹ For the first time the particular requirements of children of Junior School age were studied² and, under David Stow's influence, the importance of highly qualified teachers, of activity as a method and of social training as the basis of sound education became recognized. The standard of the teacher's training, the type of activity in school and the methods of social training that he proposed differ considerably from those of the present day, but the principles underlying his work are the same as those which underlie twentieth-century educational practices.

Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth's contribution to the education of the time was largely in connection with the development of class teaching and the training of teachers. He believed that the personal contact between the cultured mind of the teacher and the immature mind of the child was of fundamental importance, and he framed a new plan of school organization which would make this contact possible.

The accommodation unit was a classroom with a gallery at one end. Two classes would occupy this room; the group on the gallery was given an oral lesson by the teacher or was occupied with written work, the other group was engaged in

¹ D. Stow. *The Training System*, p. 22.

² *Ibid.*, p. 15.

work such as reading practice or recitation on the floor of the room. The number of classroom units depended on the size of the school. In a small school where all the children could get into one classroom, four grades were formed; these grades were arranged on the gallery or on the floor according to whether they were doing oral or practice work. The teacher had to have direct contact with each grade some part of each day, and in large schools where the number of classes made this impossible assistant teachers or pupil teachers had to be employed.

These teachers were not the former monitorial type. They had to be trained and, owing to the extravagant standard of staffing proposed, another form of organization, known as the 'Tripartite' method, was developed. This went back to the one large classroom of the monitorial system. The children were divided into three grades and the work into three types. The room was built with a gallery at one end, large enough to accommodate one-third of the children; the middle section of the room was furnished with desks sufficient to seat another third; and the rest of the room was free of furniture to allow the remaining third to work in 'drafts' as under the Lancasterian system. Each grade was sub-divided into groups for work in the three different parts of the room. At the end of every three-quarters of an hour the groups interchanged, so that each group spent part of each day in oral lessons on the gallery, part in written work at the desks and part in practice in reading, spelling, etc., in the rest of the room.

School Books

All these developments affected method rather than matter, particularly as textbooks were still few in number and limited in content. Most stories had a moral background, for example, Mrs. Trimmer's *Fabulous Histories designed for the instruction of children in their treatment of animals*. As its title suggests this was a book on nature study, which was a favourite subject at that time for training in ethical standards.

Verse, too, was very popular. Typical books were Isaac Watts's *Divine and Moral Songs for Children* (in the preface of which he recommends the use of verse as an effective form of instruction for children), and Elizabeth Turner's *The Daisy: Or Cautionary Stories in Verse for Children of Four to Eight years*. These books were designed to give moral and religious training to children in an attractive form. An interesting example of this teaching carried to an extreme is Isaac Watts's 'The Ten Commandments'.

- 1 Thou shalt have no more Gods but me.
- 2 Before no idol bow thy knee.
- 3 Take not the name of God in vain.
- 4 Nor dare the Sabbath day profane.
- 5 Give both thy parents honour due.
- 6 Take heed that thou no murder do.
- 7 Abstain from words and deeds unclean.
- 8 Nor steal, tho' thou art poor and mean.
- 9 Nor make a wilful lie, nor love it.
- 10 What is thy neighbour's do not covet.

Not all the rhymes were as ponderous as this. Some of Elizabeth Turner's cautionary rhymes are quite amusing and even Isaac Watts wrote verses which have genuinely delighted many generations of children.

A little later the moral tended to disappear, and amusing poems, such as 'The Peacock "At Home"' by A Lady, brought a lighter vein into children's books.

The Butterfly's Ball and the Grasshopper's Feasts
 Excited the spleen of the Birds and the Beasts:
 For their mirth and good cheer — of the Bee was the theme,
 And the Gnat blew his horn, as he danced in the beam;
 'Twas humm'd by the Beetle, 'twas buzz'd by the Fly,
 And sung by the myriads that sport through the sky.
 The Quadrupeds listen'd with sullen displeasure,
 But the tenants of Air were enraged beyond measure.

But on the whole the training was extremely serious and

very narrow, as may be seen by this list of books¹ used in the Borough Road School, London, during the nineteenth century:

Hymns for Children	by I. Watts
Hymns	Mrs. Barbauld
Introduction to the Knowledge of Nature and the use of the Scriptures	by Mrs. Trimmer
Catechism of Nature	Marinet
Arts and Sciences	Turner
(An instructive book read by seniors with the exception of its heathen mythology)	
Scripture Instruction by Question and Answer	J. Freame
Mental Improvement	Priscilla Wakefield
Instructive Hints	
Pastoral Lessons	

No author's name is given for the last two books, not even an anonymous ascription to 'A Lady' gives any indication of the writers to whom pupils were indebted for the injunctions contained in 'Instructive Hints' and 'Pastoral Lessons'.

A few schools had a wider curriculum: books other than the Bible or moral stories were read, visits were made to museums and children attended public lectures. In these schools the work tended to go to the other extreme and such subjects as geometry, natural philosophy and astronomy were introduced.

But on the whole, while progress had been made in school organization and methods of teaching, there was little advance in subject matter. The syllabus was still regarded as an end in itself rather than as the means of educating children.

Voluntary versus State control of Education

While these developments were taking place, the general trend of educational progress was being determined by two important factors: one was the struggle between the 'Voluntary-

¹ J. LANCASTER. *Improvements in Education.*

ists' and the 'Secularists' and the other was the increasing control of the State.

The 'Voluntaryists' were those who favoured a voluntary system of education in the hands of religious bodies; the 'Secularists' favoured State control and undenominational education. Neither side won, but the struggle determined the form that the educational system was to take, a form which has persisted with certain modifications down to the present day.

The increasing control of the State had a very direct bearing on the work of the Primary School. In 1833 Parliament voted the first grant to education and from that date the form of educational organization, special subjects and standards of buildings and equipment have reflected government policy through the method of administering the grants. This has its obvious advantages, but it has also serious disadvantages, not least of which is the restriction which it imposes on the curriculum of a school.

Grants from the State

The first grant in 1833 was for the erection of school buildings. No control was exercised, however, until 1839 when a committee of the Privy Council was set up to administer the grant. In 1840 the government, through this committee, issued a pamphlet on planning schools. The pamphlet consisted of plans of schools suitable for the three types of organization then in operation, that is the Lancasterian type, the National School type (Bell's) and the Mixed type of Kay-Shuttleworth.¹

In 1846 grants were made towards teachers' salaries, thereby ensuring a better qualified staff; in 1847 grants were made for books, maps and other teaching apparatus, for the rent of land for gardening, building workshops for woodwork and for making provision for domestic science for girls. In 1860 the first 'Code' was published embodying the conditions under

¹ See Appendix II, p. 290.

which these grants could be received. This Code was revised in 1861, following the report of a commission, under the chairmanship of the Duke of Newcastle, which had been making an inquiry into the alleged excessive cost of education and the low standard of work done in the schools.

The length of a child's school life was still very short. In 1857, the year before the Newcastle Commission was formed, the following attendance figures were published. Out of the two million children who had attended school

- 42 per cent had attended less than 1 year
- 22 per cent had attended between 1 and 2 years
- 15 per cent had attended between 2 and 3 years
- 9 per cent had attended between 3 and 4 years
- 5 per cent had attended between 4 and 5 years
- 4 per cent had attended between 5 and 6 years

and very few children remained at school after they had reached the age of eleven.

The Commissioners, appalled at the state of education, put forward various recommendations which were designed to improve the work in the schools. The recommendations were issued in the form of a 'Revised Code' and took effect from 1862. The chief provisions affecting Primary school work were:

- 1 Grants were to be made on a capitation basis.
- 2 No grant to be allowed for children of twelve or over.
- 3 Children under twelve years qualified for grant if
 - a they made a certain number of attendances
 - b they had reached a certain standard in the 3 R's.
- 4 No grant was made for girls unless they were taught needlework.
- 5 Grants to Training Colleges were cut.
- 6 The Teachers' Pension Scheme was withdrawn.
- 7 Grants for buildings, furniture, books and the improvement of premises were withdrawn.

In order to operate provision 3b, the work in reading, writing and arithmetic was divided into six standards. To qualify for grant a child had to pass a test on the work planned

for the particular standard he was in at the time. The effect of this was disastrous from an educational point of view.

The 'payment by result' system implied by these regulations led to an almost exclusive concentration on the 3 R's and the earlier movement towards a more liberal curriculum and a more intelligent method of teaching was checked. Besides limiting the curriculum, the new regulations had the effect of lowering, instead of raising, the standard of work. Children were kept as long as possible in as low a class as possible so that a high proportion would pass the required test; the work even in the 3 R's was restricted to the bare limits of the syllabus set out in the Revised Code. Children were drilled over and over again until they memorized every line of the reading book. Methods of teaching and subject matter became stereotyped, uninteresting and mechanical. In 1867 the Revised Code was modified to encourage more rapid promotion and a more liberal curriculum. The idea of a three-year course for the top three standards in one or two subjects was introduced. These 'specific' subjects, as they are called, could be taken by individual children and a grant made on the results of an examination at the end of the course. The subjects allowed were grammar, geography or history.

The Education of Children in Factories

The first thirty-four years of State control then, show what an immense direct influence grants may have on the work of a school and how essential it is for the government to have a broad educational outlook, to ensure that the administering of the grant shall not check but rather promote educational progress.

But the provision of grants was not the only direction in which the State was exercising control before 1870. Interest and concern had always been shown for children working in factories and for some years a few managers had been operating schemes for the education of their child workers. In 1802 the Health and Morals of Apprentices Act was passed. This limited a child's working day to not more than twelve hours, part of

18 ACTIVITY IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

which had to be given to instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. In 1833 a Factory Act was passed making two hours instruction a day compulsory. In 1843 Sir James Graham introduced a Bill to enforce three hours instruction a day and to reduce the working day for children between the ages of eight and thirteen to six and a half hours. This Bill was not passed but a second Factory Bill became law in 1844, limiting the employment of children to half time and throwing upon the parent the responsibility of seeing that their children spent the other half of the week at school. Arrangements could be made for three whole days at school or six half days. This had the effect of making half-time education compulsory for children between eight and thirteen years if they were working in factories, conditions which prevailed up to 1870 when the first Education Act became law.

1870 to 1900

From 1870 onwards public interest and State legislation has tended to centre on the education of older children. Legislation has brought about an increase in the length of compulsory school life, and, by the Act of 1944, has made the provision of Secondary Schools for all children over eleven years obligatory.

The Elementary Education Act of 1870

The Elementary Education Act of 1870 marks the beginning of a new stage in the history of education in England. It dealt mainly with administration. It provided for School Districts and in those districts where the voluntary societies were not able to establish sufficient school accommodation, there were to be School Boards. The School Board might make by-laws 'requiring parents of children of such age, not less than five nor more than thirteen years, as may be fixed by the by-laws, to cause such children (unless there is some reasonable excuse) to attend school'.¹

¹ Elementary Education Act, 1870, Art. 74 (1).

Exemption from this duty could be granted if the child concerned was 10 years old or over and had reached a certain standard of attainment in the 3 R's, to be laid down by local by-laws. This meant that in practice the age limits for compulsory education were five to ten or eleven, and there was a rapid fall in numbers in the age groups over eleven.¹

Infant Schools for children up to six or seven years of age were already in existence, so that schools for older children provided for the Junior age groups of six or seven to ten or eleven. As the age at which exemption could be granted was raised so these schools gradually changed from what was a form of Junior school to an 'Upper School'. Interest in the education of older children was stimulated still further by the Reports of the Cross Commission on Education. These reports expressed concern at the low standard of work in the schools and the limited character of the curriculum. To improve these conditions, recommendations were made for the establishment of special schools for older children which later became known as Central or Higher Grade Schools. At the same time the work of Pestalozzi and Froebel aroused interest in the education of children under seven, and so the Junior School period between the younger and the older age groups came to be ignored.

Attempts to Counteract the effect of the Code of 1862

The Act of 1870 established the principle of education for all and the last thirty years of the century were occupied with putting this principle into practice. The ages recommended for school life and the ruling that a Time Table had to be approved by Government Inspectors were the only provisions which directly affected the education given to children in school. But the Act was followed in 1871 by 'The New Code', a second revision of the Revised Code of 1869. It is interesting to note that it was the Code and not the Acts of Parliament that

¹ Report of Committee of Council 1870-71. Appendix I, Table 4.

influenced educational progress during this period. The New Code raised the amount of grant and required a larger number of attendances (250 instead of 200); the examination of children under seven was discontinued and since the previous regulations had laid down six as the minimum age for examination the standards had to be modified. The original Standard I was abolished, the original Standard II became Standard I and a more advanced Standard VI was added.

Almost every year there was some modification of the Code and some alteration in the method of administering the grant. Gradually the 'payment by results' system disappeared, the curriculum became wider, the standard of work was raised and the length of school life increased with the result that the school of 1900 was a very different educational institution from that of 1870.

Comparison of Schools in 1870 and 1900

In 1870 the subjects of the curriculum were reading, writing and arithmetic, with one or occasionally two other subjects for individual children of nine years or over and plain needlework for the girls. In 1900 subjects included beside the 3 R's, drawing for boys, needlework for girls, object lessons in geography, history and common objects, singing and physical exercises. These subjects were to be taken as a rule all through the school. Practical subjects, commanding a 'special subjects' grant, could be taken by older children; these included cooking, laundry, dairy work and household management for girls and cottage gardening and manual instruction for boys. Individual children could also take one or two subjects selected from a long list of languages and scientific or commercial subjects. In 1870 17 per cent of the passes in the annual examination had to be in the work of Standards IV, V and VI, while in 1900, though the examination for grant purposes had been abolished, at least 30 per cent of children were expected to pass the Standard IV test, which was equivalent to the Standard V of the 1870 scale. In 1870 the length of a

child's school life was never more than four years and generally about two, but in 1900 it was a minimum of five years and often seven. No child could be exempted from school attendance under the age of twelve in 1900, but in 1870 a child of ten could claim exemption. By degrees, therefore, without any sudden or violent changes the education of children over seven had become broader, more practical and more experimental.

The Twentieth-Century Outlook Anticipated

The opinions expressed on education during the last twenty years of the nineteenth century reflect in some ways the views of the present day. In 1896, for example, the Revised Instructions to the Code stated 'The objects of the alterations made in recent codes have been . . . to give freedom of classification according to the attainments, abilities and opportunities of the scholars'. This foreshadows the 3 A's — Age, Ability and Aptitude — which, in recent publications of the Ministry of Education, have replaced the 3 R's of pre-war years. Another interesting example is the opening sentence of a paper read by E. A. E. Shirreff to the Froebel Society in 1880, on 'Moral Training'. It says 'It may seem inconsistent with the view of education as a *harmonious development of the whole being*¹ to speak of training in one direction as more important than another and to place moral above intellectual or physical education'. Miss Shirreff expresses here the fundamental aim of education which has been expressed from time to time by far-seeing educationists since the days of Plato, and which has been echoed again in recent years by Sir Richard Livingstone in the words 'The right education must tune the two strings of body and mind to a perfect spiritual harmony'.²

1900 TO THE PRESENT DAY

But this period of expansion was only short lived and at the beginning of the twentieth century there was a return to the

¹ The italics are the author's.

² The Rede Lecture, 1944. SIR R. LIVINGSTONE. *Plato and Modern Education*, p. 10.

formal and limited work characteristic of the 'payment by results' years. The first event that brought this about was the passing of a Bill to 'Facilitate the provision of Technical Instruction' in 1889. The Act decreed that

- 1 A Local Authority may from time to time out of the local rates supply or aid the supply of Technical or Manual Instruction. . . .

and

- 2 It shall be competent for any Local Authority should they think fit to institute an *entrance examination*¹ for persons desirous of attending Technical Schools or Classes.

By these laws government approval was given to the establishment of the scholarship system.

The effect of this was not felt for some years, but as secondary school education came to be regarded as the symbol of respectability and the key to the professions so competition for the limited number of free places became more and more keen. The Junior School, therefore, only recently released from the restrictions of the 'payment by results' system found itself burdened with the exacting demands of a competitive examination.

For a few years at the end of the nineteenth century and the beginning of the twentieth the upper schools were divided into Junior Mixed and Senior Mixed departments. This was the result of a number of factors the chief of which was the importance attached to the education of the older age groups. The Junior departments consisted of children in Standards I, II and III, or, in some areas, Standards I and II only. These schools, therefore, provided for at the most three and sometimes only two age groups. A Junior section might be attached to a Higher Grade School, in which case it would accommodate children up to eleven or twelve. The number of these schools was small and the two-standard school was found to be most unsatisfactory, so that this horizontal division between the younger and older children soon disappeared. The majority

¹ The italics are the author's.

of children therefore between seven and eleven were taught in Boys and Girls departments extending over the whole age range above the infant stage.

Adverse Conditions for the Development of Primary Education

During the first quarter of the twentieth century developments tended to hinder, rather than help, the education of Junior children.

1. THE EFFECT OF THE LENGTHENING OF SCHOOL LIFE. One of the factors was the gradual lengthening of school life. The 1870 Act prescribed the ages of five and thirteen as the normal limits of school life, but exemption from school could be granted to children between ten and thirteen years of age. By 1893 exemption could not be granted for children under eleven years old, and in 1900 under twelve.

In 1918 exemptions were done away with altogether and fourteen became the upper compulsory age limit for all children.¹ A few Junior Schools of the seven to nine type did remain in existence; but the Primary School practically disappeared again after a very brief life, as the Boys' and Girls' Schools covered a longer and longer period, and was not revived until after the first World War. The importance of sending the older children out into the world as well equipped, educationally, as possible led to a concentration of effort and expenditure on the top age groups. The Junior section, therefore, fared badly and received the minimum of supplies and attention.

2. THE EFFECT OF THE SCHOLARSHIP EXAMINATION. The second factor which exerted an adverse influence on Junior education was the development of Secondary Schools and the increasing recognition of the importance of this type of education in the economic and social life of the country. The scholarship examination by which the children from Elementary Schools could procure Secondary education began therefore to assume

¹ Exemptions were reinstituted by the Act of 1936, when the school leaving age was raised to fifteen, but it had little effect on Junior School education, and was in fact never invoked because the school leaving age was never raised.

great importance. For a time nearly all the subjects of the curriculum were examined and the width of Primary School education was not greatly affected. But it soon became evident that success in the academic work of a Secondary School depended almost entirely on ability to read intelligently, to write legibly and to do simple sums.

The examination, therefore, was limited to the two basic subjects of English and arithmetic.

The restriction of the examination to these two subjects and the increasing importance attached to Secondary education affected Junior School work in two ways: It led to a concentration on the 3 R's to the almost complete exclusion of the more liberal aspects of the curriculum and to the introduction of homework. In spite of the efforts of many teachers to widen the curriculum and to establish a form of education especially suited to children of this age, the scholarship examination has more or less controlled Junior School education right up to the present time. Even in 1937 a Board of Education Inspector could write, 'The evil is rather that the examination subjects loom so large . . . that the educational values of the curriculum as a whole, for all children, are not considered, and interests in, e.g. nature study and practical work, which might be developed out of school, are apt to be neglected'.¹ The Examination is not in itself uneducational. It fulfils its function of selection for Secondary education reasonably accurately; the tragedy is that it has been allowed to dominate Junior School education for so long.

3. THE EFFECT OF THE 1914-18 WAR. The 1914-18 war put an end temporarily to any progress in Junior education. The shortage of teachers, the requisitioning of school buildings by government departments, and the lack of equipment and stock brought all developments to a standstill. The illiteracy of an appreciable proportion of the men who joined the Forces, and the irresponsibility displayed by the youth of the country,

¹ 'Homework', Board of Education Pamphlet No. 110, p. 13.

drew the attention not only of the military authorities but of the general public to the short-comings of the Education System. In particular, educational facilities for older boys and girls were found to be almost entirely lacking. The Act of 1918, therefore, was largely concerned with provision for older children.

The Primary School Recognized

Interest in education at this time was considerable and after the passing of the 1918 Act a number of inquiries, mainly focused on Post-Primary education were set on foot by the Consultative Committee. The first of these was a Report on 'Scholarships and Free Places' issued in 1920. It was followed in 1924 by a Report on 'Psychological Tests of Educable Capacity' and in 1926 by a Report on 'The Education of the Adolescent'. Although the 1920 and 1924 Reports had some bearing on Juniors, their main concern was with the older children. The 1926 Report was entirely concerned with these older age groups and proposed the setting up of some form of Post-Primary education for all children of eleven years or over. This recommendation implied, of course, Primary Schools for children under eleven, a proposal which was to be the subject of a later Report.

In 1927 a new *Handbook of Suggestions for Teachers* was issued. In this book four stages in a child's education were distinguished: Nursery for the under fives, Infant for children from five to eight, Junior from eight to eleven and Senior from eleven to fourteen or over. The Primary School period was therefore beginning to take shape. In the introductory section of the book it was defined as covering the three years eight to eleven, and as 'a period of transition', but it was given a definite place in the discussions on curricula.

Teachers were well aware that the education of the younger children needed considerable revision. It was noticeable that every Education Act was concerned primarily with provision for older children and the needs of the younger groups had been

ignored. Attempts were made to widen the curriculum but the Scholarship Examination still exerted a great influence both on the work and on the organization of Junior classes. The Report on 'The Education of the Adolescent' had indirectly raised the question of Junior education and in 1931 the Board of Education published a report on 'The Primary School'. This report gave official recognition to the principles of Primary School education that had been forming during the previous ten years, and it is still the best published work on school organization and curricula for children at this stage.

The report was an important step forward, but unfortunately it came out at a time when it was impossible to put its recommendations into operation, for its publication coincided with the financial depression which put an end temporarily to all developments in the field of education. When the economic position improved Local Authorities went ahead with their plans for reorganization as suggested in the Hadow Report. These plans were mainly concerned with provision for the Post-Primary stage and although automatically Primary Departments came into being as Post-Primary Schools were developed, they had to take second place and were generally housed in old buildings adapted more or less satisfactorily to the needs of the younger children.

The raising of the school leaving age to fifteen by the Act of 1936 again fixed the attention of Local Authorities on the Post-Primary period. The age was to be raised in 1939; but war was imminent and the plan was not put into effect. The prospect of any development of Primary Schools became more and more remote and by 1940 educational progress came practically to a standstill.

In 1945 the schools emerged from five and a half years of struggle. During those years reorganization based on the Hadow Report had to cease, the teaching staff was greatly reduced, schools were needed for Civil Defence purposes and buildings were demolished by enemy action. But in spite of the increasing difficulties under which teaching had to be

carried on much thought was given during the war years both to the theory and practice of education.

This interest in education was due partly to the phase of educational development which was already in progress, and partly to the evacuation of school children which brought the problem of education into great prominence in both evacuating and reception areas. In spite of difficult conditions of accommodation and equipment, schemes and studies of great merit were planned and carried out with Primary School children. It is not likely that this experience will be wasted or fail to have considerable influence on the education of children in the future.

During the war educational development was chiefly associated with age groups outside the compulsory limits of school life: that is, with Nursery education for the 'under fives' and with the provision of Youth Clubs for the 'over fourteens'; the Primary School once more had to be put on one side.

In 1944 a new Education Act became law; like that following the first World War it is mainly concerned with the education of older children, but, unlike the earlier Act, the Primary School period is recognized not only as the basis of all Post-Primary education but also as a most important phase in the school life of each child. The changed emphasis is evident in the number of investigations that have been set on foot. Experiments in methods and subjects and research into the psychology of children between seven and eleven years of age have been instituted, and the problem of the classification of these children for Secondary education is receiving much thought and study.

The Primary School, therefore, seems to have become a reality, and if its importance both as a link in the educational system as a whole and as an essential phase in the school life of each child is fully realized, it must look forward to an increasing responsibility in the education of the young citizens of this country.

CHAPTER II

THE PRIMARY SCHOOL OF TO-DAY

THE conception of a Primary School then has been gradually taking shape during the past twenty years. Re-organization, based on the Hadow Report, resulted in a clearer definition of this period, but it was not until the Act of 1944 that education up to eleven or twelve became recognized by law as constituting the first stage in a child's school life.

THE LIMITS OF THE PRIMARY PHASE

The Primary Set-up

The period falls naturally into three phases: Nursery (under compulsory school age), Infant and Primary. There is still much difference of opinion as to the exact limits of each phase and how the phases should be grouped in school organization. Many well-known authorities on the education of children under five favour Nursery Schools or Nursery-Infant Schools and prefer that the Primary section should be organized as a separate unit. But there are advantages in having an organization which covers two or even all three phases of Primary School life.

The Two to Eleven or Five to Eleven Organization

ADVANTAGES. Firstly, the children at the top of such a department are old enough to take some responsibility in the organization of the school community. Secondly, a set-up of this kind allows the family to remain as a unit up to the age of about twelve, a factor of great importance in the school's social life and one which favours a much closer Home and School relationship than is possible when the young members of the family are distributed amongst several departments. The needs

of the younger children provide the older ones with opportunities for activities and social training, and the attainments of the older children set standards that are neither too perfect nor too remote for the younger ones to attempt to reach. It allows, too, for continuity of training in independence and responsibility which is a recognized part of the work of all Nursery and most Infant Schools and which is so noticeably absent from only too many Junior Schools.

Furthermore, it creates a social pattern similar to that in which the children live, making it possible to set up a system of school government which embodies the main principles of a democratic society.

DISADVANTAGES. There are, of course, drawbacks to schools of this type. The argument most frequently raised is that the formality of the work of the average Primary School tends to spread downwards to the younger classes, with the result that the activity of the Infant and even the Nursery end of the school is gradually displaced by the rigidity of the upper end, and that the shadow of the 'Free Place' examination which falls on the ten to eleven age group spreads farther and farther downwards. At one time the effect of the scholarships *was* felt in Infants' departments, but it is generally recognized now that an early start in the 3 R's does not necessarily result in a high standard at the age of ten and may do real harm to some children. In any case the reverse process is equally possible and the formality of the Junior classes can be broken down more rapidly in a school where there are Infant classes working on free and active lines than in one which is limited to the Junior age groups.

There are other arguments against a two to eleven type of school. One is that the set-up for a Nursery department is so different from that of a Junior that difficulties of organization are created; another is that the school would be so big that the intimate, homely atmosphere necessary for the Nursery could not be attained; and yet another, that the Infant children would be deprived of the training in responsibility which is possible in a school in which the oldest children are seven or

eight. The first two difficulties can be overcome by careful planning. Children's requirements at different phases in their school life are very diverse, and no organization will be satisfactory unless this fact is taken into consideration. In a two to eleven school, therefore, the three phases, Nursery, Infant and Primary, must be conceived as separate units within the whole, each planned to fulfil the functions of a particular phase and to satisfy the needs of children of a particular age.¹ In a school planned along these lines the first two difficulties need never arise. The third drawback can, of course, be overcome by reserving some of the easier tasks for the Infants and by giving them responsibility within their own department or class.

The Reaction of Children to a Change of School

Educationally, therefore, there are advantages and disadvantages in each organization and a final decision on which type is preferable must be determined by the most important consideration of all, namely, the reaction of children to a change of school.

It is often alleged that frequent changes interfere with progress. This, of course, is true. Different methods of teaching, different ways of performing operations, and different forms of discipline must retard progress to a certain extent and may even cause a definite set-back, but the extent of retardation can be considerably lessened by close co-operation between departments and by uniformity of method.

Width of experience is the essence of Primary School education and a child whose early school days have been passed only in one building may find adjustment difficult when faced with a new setting for the first time at the age of eleven. At least one change, therefore, is educationally sound, and for some children the stimulation experienced by two breaks may be necessary. Exceptionally shy and sensitive children, however, may take a long time to settle down in new surroundings; for

¹ Cf. p. 276.

these even one break may be too great a strain. At present our experience of different types of schools is limited and detailed knowledge of the psychology of children of Primary School age is relatively scanty. Any statement, therefore, of the effect on children of one organization or of another is not more than an expression of opinion based on limited opportunities for observation and until increased knowledge proves otherwise there appears to be a place for schools of every type in the educational provision for children under eleven.

AGE LIMITS

Whatever may be the organization, the three phases in a child's school life need to be recognized and their limits defined. Development is gradual and no definite break can be distinguished between one phase and the next; the limits, therefore, must be determined by some arbitrary factor such as chronological age or scholastic attainment rather than by psychological considerations such as social or emotional development.

Chronological age forms the most convenient basis of division. There is difference of opinion, however, as to whether the break at the bottom end of the Primary stage should be six, seven or eight, and at the top end ten, eleven, twelve or even later.

The Lower Limit

A BREAK AT SIX YEARS OF AGE. A break at six has support in America and certain European countries where it is the age at which compulsory education begins. Most children have felt a desire to learn to read by about six and are ready for direct teaching during the seventh year, though there are, of course, a few children who do not reach this stage until much later. A lower limit of six, therefore, would enable the whole 'learning to read' process to be carried through in the Primary School and would coincide with the change from incidental to direct

instruction. If, however, this practice were followed, it would create a brief Infant School period covering only one year of school life which would be most unsatisfactory. A Nursery stage extending to six and a Junior stage from six upwards would solve this problem, but such a scheme would necessitate either making Nursery education compulsory or making attendance between five and six voluntary. As neither of these is possible under present legislation, six is not really practicable as a limit at present although it may be sound educationally.

A BREAK AT EIGHT YEARS OF AGE. The case of the break between the Infant and Primary phase at the age of eight is also based on the 'learning to read' process. By the age of eight the majority of children have acquired a fair fluency in reading, though as before there are a few who, for one reason or another, have not experienced even any desire to learn to read. Many teachers of Infants prefer to keep the teaching of reading in their own departments and retain the children until the majority, at least, of those who pass out of their schools are able to read ordinary children's books fluently and with understanding. The task of the Primary School then becomes that of widening the field of reading, though it will still have the responsibility of teaching it to the few less advanced children. A serious disadvantage to this limit is that some children will be nearly nine before entering the Primary School. By this age they will have out-grown physically, mentally and socially the Infant School environment, even though some may still be at a seven-year-old level of attainment. Hence, while Infant teachers tend to favour a break at eight Junior teachers on the whole prefer an earlier age.

A BREAK AT SEVEN YEARS OF AGE. The third possibility is a break at seven. It has long been the practice to consider seven as dividing Infant from Upper Schools. From 1871 the Standard I syllabus was designed for the seven to eight age group and recent government publications speak of the Junior School as covering the period seven to eleven or twelve.

By seven most children have mastered the preliminary stage of learning to read, and if a break were made at this age the hard grind and constant practice of the next phase in the 'learning to read' process would form an important part of the work of the Primary School. When the seven-eight age group remains in the Infant department this phase of the work may be unduly hurried in an effort to cover the ground before the break occurs, but if the seven-eight age group is in the Primary department already, then the phase can continue for as long as may be necessary, varying according to the rate of progress of each individual child. The problem, too, of those children who have made a late start or hardly started to read at all by eight or even nine is met with in the Primary School and it can be tackled far more easily when the teaching of reading is a normal activity of the school than when special provision has to be made for it. The Infant department also gains by the transfer of the seven-eight age group to the Primary section, since it is relieved of the formal teaching associated with this phase in the process of learning to read and it is able to proceed more leisurely with the important work of training hand, eye and ear, of developing independence, resourcefulness and a sense of responsibility, and of laying the foundations for the more exacting work of the Primary stage.

On the physical side, too, seven appears to be a suitable age, since it marks the beginning of the second period of stability following the very rapid growth of brain and muscle during the previous two years. This physical development is accompanied by an increase in muscular control which is reflected in an eagerness for constructive activities and a change in attitude of mind from one which is mainly self-centred to one which is directed outwards. These developments make a change of teaching method necessary sometime during the eighth year.

It is clear, therefore, that while there is some foundation for considering both six and eight as marking the beginning of a new educational phase, psychological and physical considerations favour a break at seven.

The Upper Limit

The Upper limit of the Primary stage is also a matter of controversy. For the last twenty years it has been regarded as eleven, but ten, twelve and thirteen have also been put forward as marking a break between the Primary and Secondary phases.

A BREAK AT TEN YEARS OF AGE. Before the idea of post-primary education came to be generally accepted, children in the fourth standard (or over) were allowed to take 'specific' subjects. Standard IV coincided more or less with the ten to eleven age group, so it seems probable that during the early years of English education the age of ten marked the division between the younger and older children, or in present-day terms between the Primary and Secondary education. There seem to be psychological grounds for accepting this age. During the ten to eleven year children begin to show an ability to approach a subject logically and scientifically. They show a marked interest in technique for its own sake, and the divergence between the interests of boys and girls becomes more apparent at about this age. These differences affect the work in school; subject matter has to be approached from a different angle; methods have to be altered and the curriculum modified. All these facts suggest that the break at ten years of age is educationally sound.¹ Moreover, the ten-eleven year marks the beginning of the third period of rapid physical growth.

A BREAK AT ELEVEN OR LATER. Towards the end of the nineteenth century the age of eleven seems to have been accepted as marking a break. It was the age at which instruction in a trade was begun, and it was the age at which exemption for work in agriculture was granted. The chief point in its favour is that children are able to settle into a new environment before they are faced with the difficulties of the adolescent period. But eleven does not seem to mark the beginning of a new phase and it is the subject of much discussion at the present time.

¹ Cf. p. 46.

The Ministry of Education is wavering from its long adherence to eleven; official publications say 'eleven or twelve', and the suggestion of a two-year syllabus common to all forms of secondary education, before diverging into different directions at the age of thirteen indicates that opinion is tending towards a break at an even later age. This tendency is due partly to the difficulty of selecting children for any particular type of secondary education at as young an age as eleven. With our present limited knowledge the process of classification at this age is practically impossible, and even if it were possible to predict accurately the type of course most suited to particular children, it is too early to reject a broad general education for a narrow specialized training. As long as compulsory education ends at fifteen or even sixteen, however, it is unlikely that in practice the upper limit of Primary Schools will be prolonged beyond eleven years of age since such a procedure would unduly shorten the length of the Secondary School course.

The Length of Primary School Life

For the next few years, then, it seems probable that the Primary School will provide for the education of children between seven and eleven. The Infant School phase will then cover two years and the Primary phase four. In practice, however, school life does not exactly coincide with these phases. This is due to State legislation which up to the passing of the Act of 1944 decreed that every child reaching the age of five must receive 'efficient elementary education in reading, writing and arithmetic'.¹ The Local Authority had power to make by-laws modifying this if it thought fit, but there do not appear to have been any modifications nor any by-laws defining when a child should enter school; a child may begin his school life therefore at any time during the school year.

If the complete two years are spent in the Infant School

¹ Education Act 1876. The clause dealing with compulsory school age in the Education Act of 1944 is somewhat different. See Education Act 1944, Pt. II, Section 36.

children will enter the Primary department at seven, again at any time during the school year. Entry into all forms of Post-Primary education is based on age at a given date, so that if children remain the full two years in the Infant School the length of the Junior stage may vary from a full four years for the child who becomes seven during the summer holidays to three years and one term or even less for those whose birthdays fall between May and August. This immediately creates problems of curricula in the Primary School which would not arise in an Infant department where it is not necessary, desirable, or even possible to have a uniform basis of knowledge before proceeding to the next stage. It is more satisfactory, therefore, from the Junior School point of view that the age of admission should be fixed by a particular date. It does not matter very much what the date is, provided that it agrees with the date of transfer to the secondary schools at the other end of the Primary course. That is, if the date of transfer to Post-Primary education is based on age by October 1st say, then transfer from the Infant to the Junior department should also be based on age by October 1st.

If the date of transfer from the Infant to the Primary School differs from that of transfer from the Primary to the Secondary School, the length of course in the two departments would vary for different children according to the months in which their birthdays lie and social ties made during Primary School life may have to be broken as some members of a class move on to a Secondary School while others remain behind.¹

BASES OF TRANSFER FROM INFANT TO PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Chronological age then, marking as it does fairly satisfactorily the limits of the Infant and Primary phases in a child's school life, is the usual basis of transfer from one department to the next. But ability and attainment are other criteria that may be used. Neither of these will coincide with chronological age and therefore to base transfer on them introduces the problem of the

¹ See Appendix III, p. 293.

length of school life mentioned above; but if either should prove to be a sounder basis educationally for transfer, then the organization problems would have to be overcome. It seems doubtful, however, whether this is the case.

Transfer based on Ability

Ability at the Infant stage is extremely difficult to assess. Group tests cannot be considered as sufficiently accurate for such young children and individual tests, while possible, are not very practicable in a school of any size. Even if tests were available and practicable and reliable, age must be taken into consideration to a certain extent because a child of between five and six can obviously show the same degree of ability as a child between six and seven or between seven and eight. Hence, ability can only operate within certain age limits. This raises the question as to whether a child of less ability within the age group should be kept in the Infant School and whether the child of considerable ability, younger than the age group, should be transferred to the Primary School. This problem is discussed in the next chapter.

Transfer based on Attainment

It is relatively easy to assess attainment in, for example, reading, or number or writing. Some work has been done, too, on assessing attainment in Art. But there are many other aspects of the work of an Infant School that are far more difficult to measure, such as, for example, attainment in social adjustment, in muscular co-ordination and in emotional control. All these are in the nature of 'subjects' in an Infant School. They all need consideration if attainment is to be the basis of transfer. Moreover, no child will reach the same standard of attainment in all aspects, so a question arises as to which of these aspects of school work is to form the basis. Is it to be Reading? Is it to be Writing? Is it to be none of these academic aspects but the Social aspect? Is it to be the average attainment

of all or of two or three aspects? It is clearly impossible to reach a satisfactory decision on this point. In the past attainment in the 3 R's has been implied. To-day reading is recognized as the key to all other forms of knowledge and attainment in Reading alone might be a possible basis for transfer. The relation of the 'learning to read' process at the lower end of the Primary School and age has already been discussed. Attainment in reading then would cover a very wide age range depending not only on the age at which the urge to learn to read appears but also on rate of progress. The whole 'learning to read' process may not be completed before nine or ten years of age and in some cases children over eleven may have to wrestle with the very earliest stages. Moreover, children whose home environment does not provide opportunities for verbal experience would be at a great disadvantage. Attainment in reading therefore cannot form a very satisfactory basis of transfer.

Neither ability nor attainment, then, appears to be as satisfactory a basis of transfer as chronological age, and there seems to be no reason why the procedure should be complicated by introducing additional factors which give rise to another group of problems.

SIZE OF SCHOOLS

Although cost per child, ease of administration and internal organization are factors that need to be taken into consideration in determining the best size of a school, of much greater importance is the effect of the size of the community on the children themselves. This can be looked at from two angles: a child's relation to the school community and the Head Teacher's relation to the individual child.

The Child and Size of School

The school is a training ground for every child. It must be large enough, therefore, to reflect the social set up of the community and to provide opportunities for leadership, but it must

not be so large that the weaker child loses his individuality. It must be large enough to give the children width of experience and variety of social contacts both with staff and other children, but not so large that the sensitive child is forced to withdraw into himself to escape from the social environment.

There has been no scientific investigation on the size of the school community in relation to the response of children between seven and eleven years of age. It is only possible, therefore, to make tentative suggestions as to the size of school that might give the required conditions. It seems reasonable to suggest that a school of over 400 might prove overwhelming to an appreciable number of Junior children. On the old standard of size of classes this means a two-form entry, that is an entry of not more than 100 children. On the proposed new standards an entry of 100 children would lie between a two- and a three-form entry, and in order to avoid organization difficulties the age group would have to be a little below 80 or a little below 120, making a school of about 320 in the former case and 480 in the latter. Four hundred and eighty would probably be too large a school; it would appear therefore that a two-form entry in a four-year Primary School would be the most satisfactory size under either the old or the proposed new standard of classes.

The Head Teacher's Relation to the Individual Child

The Head Teacher's duty to know individually every child in the school has come under discussion recently through developments in two directions. The first has been the increase in clerical work through the rapid introduction of the Provision of Meals scheme, supplementary clothing coupons and other war-time measures. This has kept a Head Teacher more in her office than in pre-war years and has considerably reduced her opportunities for getting to know each child as an individual, though many Head Teachers have succeeded in keeping in very close contact with each child. The second is

the development of Record Cards, which requires a much closer study than ever before of each individual child.

Over a period of four years in a Primary School the Head Teacher has a reasonably good chance of getting into personal contact with each child even if the numbers rise to four or five hundred. In schools where the course only covers three years possibly the figure should be less, more frequent contact being necessary to make up for the shorter course, say perhaps three to four hundred.

All these figures are tentative but if they are approximately correct they suggest that a Head Teacher can maintain personal contact with every child in a school larger than that favourable to the development of each individual. The relation of the child to the size of the school should therefore be the controlling factor in determining that size; and since, during the next few years, there is likely to be much investigation into the characteristics of children in Primary Schools and much experiment in the keeping of cumulative records it would be well perhaps to keep the size relatively small, aiming as far as possible at a two-stream Primary School covering a four-year course.

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

For the next few years it seems safe to assume that the Primary School will provide for the education of children between seven and eleven.

The characteristics of children of this age have been studied in less detail than those of children under seven and over eleven. Hence, our knowledge of the psychological character of children between seven and eleven is limited and has been gained from observation and experience rather than from scientific investigation. The note in the Primary School Report by C. Burt on the psychological aspects of the Primary School phase is a valuable contribution and as the importance of this period becomes increasingly recognized the body of knowledge concerning it will grow rapidly.

Outstanding Characteristics

The outstanding characteristics of children between seven and eleven seem to be as follows. They are full of vigour and delight in activity. They show great interest in their surroundings but interest in any one direction is quickly exhausted, and they pursue every occupation with great intensity, but attention to any one occupation is short-lived.¹ Curiosity, which is possibly linked with a desire for experience, is characteristic and the questions 'How . . .?', 'What . . .?', 'Why . . .?', and 'Where . . .?' are probably more frequent at this phase of school life than at any other. The creative urge is very pronounced and seems to spring initially from curiosity, but later in the period it becomes associated with the expression of ideas and therefore linked with reasoning. Children of seven tend to reason in concrete materials but towards the end of the period reasoning through language supplements, and may even take the place of reasoning in concrete terms. At first there is little power of aesthetic appreciation or discrimination but in the right setting this develops steadily during the four years, though it is not until the next period is reached that there is any conscious effort to assess values.

On the physical side the children seem relatively free from infectious illnesses; they have generally got over the childish complaints so characteristic of the Infant stage and they have great powers of resistance and recovery from fatigue. On the other hand, troubles resulting from illnesses at an earlier age tend to develop during the Junior period and, owing to the nature of Primary School work, defects in sight and hearing and in physical development can be detected. If these troubles are discovered soon enough there is every possibility of their being checked or even put right altogether.

The range of intelligence is great. The effect of this becomes increasingly evident towards the end of the Primary School period and the change in interests and outlook already noted

¹ Cf. p. 257.

begins to appear during the ten to eleven year. The period, therefore, is one of gradual change during which the child of seven, living in a concrete world and occupied with his own affairs and immediate surroundings, grows into the boy or girl of eleven, living in a world of language and reasoning and concerned with the whole universe.

Particular Examples

Some of these characteristics can be seen in the descriptions given below of two children, one at the beginning and the other at the end of the Primary School period. These two girls go to the same school. They have had the same training, therefore, and the home background is similar. They are both intelligent children, with considerable verbal ability and facility in language and they both enjoy reading.

JOAN a child of eight

Joan lives in a modern house with a small garden at the front and a larger one at the back. She has a small portion of the garden in which she grows flowers and herbs. She enjoys weeding in her spare time. Now, the first week in November, she is tidying up the plants and removing dead leaves and flowers.

She is a strong, well-made, healthy, active child; very anxious to take part in everything connected with school and has the making of a leader. In Physical Training she takes her turn as Team Leader and is very efficient, but is always a valuable member of her team when it is under the leadership of another child. An aunt said of her 'Joan sometimes sits on the doorstep with them (other children in the street) all round her — and some are one or two years older than she is — and *she* shows *them* how to make and do things and organizes their games.

When Joan came from the Infant department she was not a particularly agreeable child. She expected always to be chosen to do little messages and the class seemed to accept this idea. Joan resented it when not chosen and could be

quite 'nasty' towards those who were. With careful handling Joan has become a delightful child who does not expect always to be chosen, but takes her place among the other children in the class. She is friendly and talks freely.

Joan is a Brownie. At the meetings of the Pack she does Country Dancing, Handwork (she is now making a shopping bag) and Plays. She likes reading — she reads 'comics' and library books. She is a member of the Public Library and chooses her own books on a Saturday morning 'when there is the best choice of books'. She enjoys all her lessons at school — she is thorough and conscientious and owing to her love of reading, she is fluent. Her vocabulary is above that of the average child and her compositions are pleasing.

She is quite a helpful little girl at home. She sets the table, irons handkerchiefs and does other odd jobs, but she enjoys baking day best as she enjoys 'playing with the dough'. She likes humorous and 'cow-boy' films and she goes to the special children's matinée at the cinema every Saturday.

Joan has not enough money to spend on presents but she remembers birthdays by sending cards.

She has piano lessons and practises every day as soon as she arrives home from school. She spends the rest of the evening playing with her tricycle, or her doll or her doll's house. She takes a keen interest in everyday affairs, and often brings cuttings from the newspaper to school.

This child shows many of the features characteristic of children at the beginning of Primary School life. She has the good health that would normally be expected during this period and takes a keen enjoyment in physical activities. She is always making or doing something. She has not reached the stage of discrimination in her choice of friends and she will associate with children of any age and any intelligence. Her social adjustment was poor at first but she has begun to find her place as one of a community in which others have rights and privileges as well as herself.

She shows the characteristic urge to make something both in her Brownie activities and in her play with other children. The need for creative and imaginative play is still felt, as shown by her enjoyment of 'playing with dough' and of playing with her doll's house. The practical, objective outlook is evident in her choice of films and her enjoyment of 'comics'; and her interest in the environment is indicated by her habit of bringing newspaper cuttings to the school.

MARY a child of eleven

Mary is a tall girl for her age and very well-built. She is heavier than most other children in her class but she is very fond of Physical Training lessons and Dancing. She is rather particular about her appearance. Mary has a poetic Welsh strain which shows itself in some of her compositions and in her love of singing.

Mary's favourite hobby is reading. She belongs to the Public Library and goes for her books regularly and often. Her favourite books are school stories. She has also read many of the children's classics and can discuss intelligently *Robinson Crusoe*, *Swiss Family Robinson*, *Andersen's Fairy Tales*, *Tales from Shakespeare* and *The Water Babies* among others. She is also very fond of knitting and is able to make jumpers, pull-overs, socks, etc., from printed instructions. She is also very fond of drawing and painting. At home Mary helps her mother with washing up, dusting and making the beds. She is proud to be trusted with responsibility, and does the weekly 'buying in'.

She visits the cinema on Saturday afternoon. Her favourite films are mystery stories and travel pictures, though she also likes comic films. She will make sacrifices when she wants to buy presents.

At school, her best subjects are those connected with English, as that is her favourite subject. Her arithmetic is up to the average; her work in problems well tackled because she has the ability to reason. Of History and Geography, she prefers Geography 'as History only tells you about people who are dead, and about things that happened a long time ago'.

Mary's attitude to work has steadied considerably lately. Whereas before she would make an effort on certain days and tend to sit back and take no active part on other days, there is now consistent effort.

Her wish is to leave school as soon as possible to go and help on her grandfather's farm; and yet she is looking forward to taking the examination for Secondary School education although she has no ambition to attend such a school.

Mary is a very friendly child and talks freely when questioned but does not volunteer much information on her own. She is popular with her class mates but plays and associates with only the few who are of her own intellectual level.

Mary shows a maturer outlook than Joan. She has the same characteristics of health and enjoyment in physical activities and the same tireless energy. She is, however, better adjusted to the community and shows discrimination in her choice of friends. An interest in technique is indicated by her enjoyment in following instructions in knitting, and the imaginative and creative urge is expressed in intellectual pursuits such as drawing and painting in contrast to the concrete play of the younger child.

Mary's outlook is less objective than that of Joan. She is beginning to think of her own appearance and her interest in people in general and in the world is indicated by her preference for travel and mystery films, her preference for Geography rather than History and by her extensive reading.

The discrimination she displays in relation to her friends she also exercises in her school work. Instead of enjoying all lessons, like Joan, Mary tends to favour particular subjects, but at the same time she works for the sake of achievement.

Unlike Joan, who lives more in the present, Mary is looking forward and has a distant aim in view. While, therefore, she still retains some of the outstanding characteristics of the Primary School period she appears to have entered upon the

next stage of mental development and to have more affinity with the Secondary rather than the Primary phase of school life.¹

THE FUNCTION OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

Functions in Relation to a Child's School Life

The third aspect of the Primary School of to-day that has to be considered is its function both as a phase in a child's school life and as a link in the whole education system.

DEVELOPMENT OF MIND AND BODY. The most obvious function of the Primary School is to develop as fully as possible the bodily and mental capacities of each individual pupil. It has, therefore, to provide for the maximum range of intelligence and the widest range of interests, and it has to give opportunities for a rich variety of experiences. It has to ensure that the special difficulties and problems of each child, if not actually solved, are at any rate diagnosed and it has to make provision for rectifying any physical defects that may appear. The Primary School's first function then is to see that its pupils enter the adolescent period with healthy bodies and minds as active, alert and interested as their natural endowments allow.

THE NEEDS OF THE COMMUNITY. Secondly, even at this early stage, the requirements of the community have to be remembered. A sound body and an alert mind are valueless unless used to contribute to the good of society in general. It is immensely important to set before these young children, who acquire habits of thought and action so easily and naturally at this age, the demands of the society in which they live, and to provide an environment in which they are able to practise during the ordinary course of the day's work those standards of living which make community life possible.

PREPARATION FOR EVERYDAY LIFE. It is necessary, too, to remember that everyday life demands a certain standard of skill in the 3 R's and that these children will have to earn their own

¹ Cf. p. 34.

living a few years hence. A third function of the Primary School, therefore, is to lay a foundation for this purpose. It seems premature perhaps to include this amongst the functions of a Primary School. The children are only eleven when they leave; very few of them have any notion of what they want to do when they are grown up; very few have any idea of their own capabilities or of the sort of job for which they are best suited; even teachers are unable to predict with any certainty the direction in which a child may develop or to detect capacities latent during the Primary School period. Vocational training in the limited sense certainly has no place in Junior School work; but in our modern society the ability to read, write and perform the elementary processes in Arithmetic are essential for every occupation and for the simplest requirements of our community life. The Primary School is failing to fulfil its purpose, therefore, as long as it fails to teach the fundamental subjects upon which earning a livelihood and taking part in the life of the community depends.

CLASSIFICATION FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION. Up to the passing of the Education Act of 1944 this third function tended to outweigh the other two. This was due to the value attached to Secondary education, which was essentially of an academic type based on the 3 R's. There has been some reaction to this, but the majority of schools have for many years given undue weight to the teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic, especially in the top class of the Primary School, to the exclusion of those aspects which are associated with the first two functions of such a school. The new Act, however, has provided for a wider interpretation of the term Secondary education. It has decreed that all forms of Post-Primary education shall be secondary whatever the type and whatever the abilities of the children. It is no longer the function of the Primary School, therefore, to select those children who can profit from the academic Grammar School type of Secondary education, its aim now is to determine what form of Secondary education

would be of most profit to each child. A fourth function may now be added, therefore, that of classifying children for different types of secondary education.

The Primary School as a Link in the Educational System

RELATION TO THE INFANT SCHOOL. These four functions show the relation of the Primary School to the children for whom it is provided. What is its relation to the educational system as a whole? that is, to the Infant School and to the Secondary School. Its function in relation to the Infant School is one of stabilization and consolidation. It is during the Primary period that habits of independence and self-control, of cleanliness and social behaviour, and of enjoyment in both work and play, initiated at the Infant stage, are finally established. It is during the Primary period that physical defects resulting from illnesses at an earlier age are remedied and it is on foundations laid in the Infant School that the teaching of reading, the basis of the whole education of children during the Primary period, is built.

RELATION TO THE SECONDARY SCHOOL. The Primary School's function in relation to the Secondary School is different. Just as the Primary School has to build on the foundations laid in the Infant department, so the Secondary School has to build on the foundations laid in the Primary department. It is important to ensure that these foundations are well laid and that, although they must be based mainly on the needs of the children, some consideration is given to the demands of the more advanced stage.

Secondary education consists of a number of different types amongst which the Junior School population has to be distributed. Specialized preparation for these different types is impossible and undesirable for children under eleven years of age and it is necessary therefore that Primary education should form a common basis on which any type of Secondary School can build. The relation then between Primary and Secondary

education is concerned with curriculum, and instead of broadening, consolidating and stabilizing work already begun, which is the function of the Primary in relation to the Infant School, Junior education must open up new fields of study and lay the foundations for the pursuit of knowledge focused along particular channels during the secondary phase of school life.

The work in the last year in the Primary School, then, should be the culmination of training begun in the Nursery and the solid basis on which all forms of Secondary education are able to build.

CHAPTER III

ACTIVITY METHODS IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

METHOD AND THE CHARACTERISTICS OF PRIMARY SCHOOL CHILDREN

General Considerations

THE method of teaching employed on any particular occasion is determined by a number of factors which can be divided into two classes, the human and the material. The material factors, such as school buildings, size of classroom, equipment, etc., are subsidiary considerations, which, although at present proving serious obstacles to progress, should be determined by method rather than themselves limit method. The two human factors, on the other hand, that is the pupils and the teacher, directly affect methods and no method can be successful unless it is based on the characteristics of the pupils and the capabilities of the teacher. It is evident that, under these conditions, there must be variety. But whatever the method, the general characteristics of children of primary school age must remain the most important consideration.

The great vigour and activity shown by children during this period suggest that the work of the school must be planned along lines that will give opportunities for movement, that is, methods of teaching must involve action on the part of the children. The interest shown in the environment must be utilized through direct contact with the child's world both inside and outside the school boundaries and since interests are quickly exhausted these contacts must cover as wide a field as possible. Moreover, Junior children plunge into any study with great energy and intensity and a teacher must take advantage of this in the early stages of the work;¹ later, as the first novelty

¹ Cf. Part II, Section v c, p. 257.

wears off she must keep interest alive by introducing other aspects and by using other methods of approach.

The teacher should make full use, too, of the natural curiosity of Primary School children by providing opportunities for finding things out, for taking things to pieces and for trying out experiments — in fact, for giving the children the widest range of experience possible. It is through these experiences that children take up hobbies and discover interests in different branches of knowledge, interests which in turn give rise to a desire for self-expression through some creative activity. It is necessary, therefore, to provide a great variety of materials such as may be needed for creative work of any kind, whether in the Fine Arts, or in scientific pursuits or in imaginative studies.

Experience, too, provides the concrete material basis needed for the early stages of reasoning, from which gradually develops reasoning in language. Hence, not only is experience of fundamental importance in satisfying a natural desire in Junior children, but it forms the basis of all sound reasoning at a later stage. Reasoning through direct contact with material things is not by itself sufficient and provision must be made for the gradual replacement of practical by verbal reasoning. There must be opportunities, therefore, for acquiring a wide vocabulary through conversation, reading and discussion and for the expression of ideas in written as well as in concrete form.

Another important aspect of the work of the Primary School is laying a foundation for sound aesthetic appreciation. There is always the danger in this kind of training that standards will be dictated from without. It is extremely easy for a teacher to impose his or her own opinion on children, but externally imposed standards of this kind have no real value and lead to insincerity. Direct teaching therefore has to be avoided. Instead, children should experience beauty for themselves in as many forms as possible, that is, they should be surrounded by only good pictures, they should read and learn only good

poems and they should hear and sing only good tunes. Their school, too, should be an example of good taste in furniture, colour and arrangement; and books should be well printed, and well bound. It is of the greatest importance during this period in a child's education, when he is building up a body of knowledge and experience, that he should grow up in an environment in which he unconsciously acquires a standard of taste which will form a basis of aesthetic appreciation in later years.

During the Primary School period children are relatively free from illness; physical activity, therefore, for the promotion of health plays an important part in school life. But not only activity is needed; rest and food are essential for the development of healthy bodies. At the same time provision must be made for those children who are in some way handicapped, either by poor eye-sight or hearing or by some bodily weakness, and careful observation of each individual child is needed to ensure that physical development is going on satisfactorily.

Another characteristic of the Primary School is the wide range of intelligence. This necessitates methods varied enough to give scope to the exceptionally able child on the one hand and to draw out the best from the exceptionally slow child on the other. They must be varied enough, too, to provide for the academically minded child as well as for the practically minded, and to give encouragement to the timid child and to stabilize the forward. The changing interests and outlook of Primary School children as they reach their eleventh year must be taken into consideration also in determining methods of teaching.

The Place of Activity

But however varied the methods there must be one characteristic common to all of them — they must all demand active participation on the part of the children. This does not mean disorder; activity which is not purposeful is of less educational

value than the formal lesson. It must be most carefully planned; it must involve a wide variety of interests; it must lead to a wide variety of experiments and give rise to a wide variety of experiences. These three words, 'Experience', 'Experiment' and 'Activity' express the character of Junior School work better than any others, and it is through these three channels that Junior children build up a lasting body of knowledge and develop powers of reasoning and an inquiring attitude of mind which they will never lose.

Activity and Experience in Primary School work are not new ideas. In 1882, for example, the Education Department at Whitehall issued a circular to His Majesty's Inspectors, entitled 'Examination and Inspection of Schools Generally', in which occurs the following passage. 'It is often found a help in calculation if the dimensions of the school room, the playground, and the desks and the weight of a few familiar objects are accurately known and recorded, and occasionally referred to as standards of measurement.' It is a serious reflection on the progress we have made in educational method that this advice can still be given with justification to some teachers of arithmetic.

The meaning of the word 'Activity' when applied to methods of teaching has broadened since the day when this instruction was circulated. The change is due partly to a greater knowledge of the characteristics of children between seven and eleven and partly to the wider conception of education. Activity in Primary School work to-day can only be successful as long as the term is interpreted in the light of these two factors. Many terms have found their way from time to time into educational language and their interpretation has always presented difficulties. In 1895, for example, when 'object lessons' and 'occupations' became obligatory, the term 'occupation' was often misinterpreted, and in more recent years the word 'project' has suffered in the same way and has in fact become almost unusable. It is necessary, therefore, to try to make clear what the term 'Activity' as applied to methods in the Primary School really means. Fundamentally it means 'to learn by

doing'. It means, therefore, that children are actively engaged in searching for knowledge themselves, instead of merely receiving the knowledge we elect to impart to them. The activity must spring naturally out of their immediate surroundings, and this direct contact with the environment constitutes an experience from which knowledge is gained, and through which interest is roused. This leads in turn to experiment and therefore to further experience. It is this active participation in experience and experiment that constitutes the essence of Activity in school.

Clearly it is necessary to plan the first experience but after that the work should develop naturally from experiment to experiment until interest is exhausted. The activity must not be isolated from other aspects of school work, nor should it be a 'feature' of the school. In both these cases it becomes merely another subject of the curriculum. Activity is not a subject, it is a method of approach to education; it therefore permeates every subject and all sides of school life. The government gave a good lead in their report in 1931 on 'The Primary School'. In this report teachers are urged to make experience and activity the basis of their work but unfortunately the slow progress of reorganization on the lines recommended in the Hadow report and the shadow of the Free Place Examination have delayed development in the Primary School along the lines suggested.

Activity, which, as has already been said, must begin naturally from the normal school work or the immediate environment of the children, may take various forms. It may start from any one of the subjects of the curriculum, for example, Religious Instruction. A class which became interested in stories from the Old Testament, for instance, extended the work to art, composition, play writing and a number of other activities.¹ In this particular piece of work, which lasted many weeks, the subject formed the thread running through the whole scheme, but clearly it is not often possible to retain this

¹ See Part II, Section v c, pp. 255-264.

thread for any length of time and the line of development may move to other subjects. Instead of centering on a subject therefore the nucleus may be a topic. Broadcasting, for example (not listening to the B.B.C. programmes, but transmitting to other classes in the school), can be a very exciting piece of work, involving every subject in the curriculum and demanding very exacting work in both spoken and written English.

Since activity is a method and not an occupation, it should apply to the whole life of the school. But many Head Teachers and Class Teachers are afraid to break away from the traditional formal setting, and certainly to do so on an extensive scale is unwise at the first attempt. The change should be allowed to grow gradually, starting perhaps from an informal lesson at a fixed time on a pre-arranged subject or topic with one class only, and extending to an active approach to the whole process of education in every class.

The first stage in this development has given rise to the term 'Activity Period'. It is difficult to know what other term could be used, but 'Activity Period' is apt to lead to a misunderstanding of the meaning of 'Activity' in school work; perhaps the term 'Active Period' would give less occasion for misinterpretation. When applied to set periods of this kind 'Activity' becomes merely another subject in the minds of the children. 'Oh, I did so and so in Activity' said a child to his mother when he went home from school, indicating that a wrong attitude had been formed. Activity is a method and not a subject and as long as this distinction is kept in mind the set period is a useful step towards an active approach to the whole life of the school.

ACTIVITY METHODS AND ORGANIZATION

The Effect of Age Transfer on Method

In the last chapter it is suggested that the most suitable basis of transfer from the Infant to the Primary School is age. This gives rise to certain special characteristics in the lowest

class of a Primary School which influence the methods to be employed and the work to be done. In the first place the group of children who enter the school cover a wide range of ability and intelligence. This is in fact characteristic of Primary School population as a whole. The more intelligent have not been drafted to the academic Secondary School; the less intelligent have not been transferred to special schools, so that Primary education is concerned with a complete cross-section of the intelligence range of the community. This does not mean, of course, that each Primary School has the maximum range of intelligence possible, but it does mean that each Primary School has a very wide range.

In the second place transfer by age means great variation in attainment in all aspects of school work — a variation which increases towards the top end of the school as the effect of differences of intelligence becomes more evident. Thirdly, it means that the teaching of reading must form an essential part of Primary School education.

The variation in intelligence and attainment that characterizes a class of children transferred by age, forces attention on the group or the individual instead of on the class as a whole. Class teaching, therefore, has to give way to group and individual methods and the formal lesson has to give way to informal activity. The difference of ability actually favours activity work. Every occupation has its difficult and easy tasks. If the children are all equally intelligent there is none who will care to do the easy tasks or none who is able to do the difficult ones; but if the class is of varied ability there are tasks suitable to each child and the work proceeds far more smoothly than if some are struggling with work that is too difficult for them or idling away their time with work that is too easy. Rather than a drawback, therefore, the variation in ability and attainments, characteristic of a group of children entering the Primary School when the transfer is based on age, is a real advantage to modern methods of education.

Class Organization

It is not necessary of course that the whole class should co-operate in the same occupation. Such a plan limits the variety of work that can be done, since the number of topics that are comprehensive enough to employ usefully a class of 40 to 50 children is limited. Moreover, it cramps the individuality of the members of the class, since there is necessarily much overlapping of work. Some children produce their best work, too, when working by themselves and there is something lacking in every child's education if he has never had the satisfaction of pursuing an occupation from the start to its final completion. Something of the essence of the activity method is lost, too, if a child has to conform too rigidly and continuously to the requirements of an occupation pursued by the whole class. To conform to the requirements of the community is a necessary part of the training of these children, but it is equally important to provide opportunities for the expression of individuality and creative ideas.

Each child, therefore, needs to contribute something to the creation of a whole and to create a whole from start to finish by himself. It follows, therefore, that the class can be organized as a unit working towards a common end, or as a number of small groups each working towards its own goal, or a number of separate individuals each with his own object in view; it is possible also to combine these, the first and second groupings for example, in which the goals of the small groups would unite to form the common end of the whole class, or the second and third arrangements, with part of the class working individually and the rest in groups. It is clear that work on any of these lines throws a great responsibility on each child in the class. In the first and second groupings slackness of one individual ruins the work of all; in the third type of organization the lazy child cannot hide behind the work of the others or be supported by the co-operative effort of the group. An important point in group work is that each member should know what part his

share of the work plays in the whole scheme and learn to realize that without his contribution the whole plan will break down. The arrangement and furnishing of the classroom is an important factor in the ease with which this work can be carried out and will be discussed later.

Problems

Just as age seems to be the best basis of transfer from the Infant to the Primary School, so it seems to be the best basis of promotion from one class to another within the Primary School.

MIXED AGE GROUPS. When the entry every year is equal to one complete class, that is between 40 and 50 on the old scale of not more than 50 to a class, or between 30 and 40 on the proposed new scale, organization is simple and promotion automatic. But problems do arise when the intake is more than one class. In this case the top and bottom classes are composed generally of children of one age group and the intermediate classes consist of mixed age groups. The composition of these mixed classes has always presented a difficulty. The usual procedure is to form a class of the better children of the younger age group and the less good children of the older age group, in an attempt to create a relatively uniform class. The basis of selection, however, of necessity produces a wide range of intelligence and though it might result in uniformity of attainment, this disappears in a week or two as the different rates of progress of the children begin to have an effect on the standard of work. The variation in ability resulting from this procedure is valuable in modern methods of teaching in Primary Schools but the association of lower ability with greater age, emphasized in this type of classification, may produce emotional disturbances amongst the older children which do not arise to the same extent in a class selected on an age basis, in which the range of intelligence is probably as great but is distributed adventitiously and not in relation to age.

THE REMEDIAL CLASS. Sometimes the problem is solved by forming a small class of the weaker children from each age group. This reduces the range of intelligence and increases the age range. The great advantage is that it allows each child to have more individual help than is possible in the larger class, where the good and the average children, as well as the backward ones, have to receive their share of the teacher's attention.

Such a class may persist throughout the whole school course and children may spend their whole Primary School life in it. In this case a special syllabus is drawn up and a complete, well-balanced scheme is planned to provide a course as comprehensive as possible designed to suit children of lower mental ability. The wide age range and the difference in social and physical development between the youngest and the oldest in such a class may give rise to difficulties which cannot easily be overcome, and very often, in the hands of a skilful teacher, these backward children gain more by remaining with their companions in their own age group than by being provided for in a special class.

Sometimes a class of this kind is remedial in character, the children returning to their own age group as soon as the special difficulties that brought them into the class have been overcome. A child, therefore, may remain in the class only a week or two or for a whole term. Although excellent work is done in diagnosing and treating the specific difficulties of individual children there is still doubt as to whether the principle of remedial classes is sound. In a normal class working on activity lines there is always something that children in the lower intelligence categories can do, so that they can take some part in the work of the class. If they are taken out to a remedial class, not only do they have to break the social contacts they have made, but they have to give up work they have already begun. When they return to the normal class they have to pick up the threads again and adjust themselves once more to the social environment, difficulties which may well have brought about the need for special treatment in the first instance. On

the whole, therefore, it seems to be best to keep to the simple age classification and to treat special cases in their own age group.

RE-CLASSIFICATION FOR SUBJECTS. Sometimes children are classified in age groups and re-classified for special subjects. For the general work the class remains as a unit, but for subjects such as English and arithmetic, in which attainment depends on the intelligence and rate of progress of the individual, some children may work with a class lower or higher than their own. This puts certain restrictions on the time-table but it is not incompatible with an activity programme and may be the best way of solving the problem of varied attainment in the 3 R's, especially in arithmetic, which arises in every class.

ACTIVITY METHODS AND THE FUNCTIONS OF THE PRIMARY SCHOOL

In the approach to Primary School work through activity, experience and experiment opportunities are provided for the discovery of interests, talents and hobbies and for the full development of physical health. It gives training, too, in playing a part as one of a group and in taking responsibility. The method, therefore, allows the Primary School to fulfil its first two functions, namely, the development of the bodily and mental abilities of the children and the training for living in a community.

It does not ensure with certainty, however, that the solid basis of skill in reading, writing and arithmetic, necessary for the fulfilment of the third function, is attained. All three subjects depend for their value as tools of education and bases of all forms of occupation on technical skill.

The reading incidental to the occupations engaged in during the active periods is mainly concerned with the search for factual knowledge, and gradually becomes a means of stimulating thought and imagination and an occupation followed for its own sake. Reading for factual knowledge and enjoyment

is clearly of the utmost importance as a factor in mental development, as well as a necessary accomplishment for life in twentieth-century England and for every form of livelihood. It is clear that the technique of such fundamental subjects must be thoroughly mastered and school work should be organized in such a way as to make this possible.

The same is true of writing. This is the reverse process of reading — consisting of expressing thought in words instead of interpreting words into thoughts. It is the more difficult process, depending not only on a wide vocabulary gained through reading and conversation, but also on an ability to select from that vocabulary the required words. In the hands of men of letters, of course, writing becomes a highly skilled art and, particularly in the expression of abstract ideas, demands a high degree of precision of thought comparable to that needed in any exact science. In the Primary School it is of great value as a means of self-expression, as a safeguard against inaccurate conceptions and as an aid to clear thinking. Like reading, therefore, it is an important factor in mental development and necessary both in everyday life and in any type of occupation. Mastery of the mechanics of writing is, of course, necessary. This involves three types of mechanical skill — the manipulative skill required in putting pen to paper, spelling and the order of the words. The first skill is clearly necessary from the outset and at some stage in the growth of power to use written language, the other two skills, spelling and English construction, must be tackled. When and how they should be introduced are frequent subjects of controversy amongst teachers and it is beyond the scope of this book to discuss them, but it is evident that provision must be made for mastering the first two, if not all three, writing skills during the Primary School stage.

Arithmetic is less important than reading or writing and for the majority of children will never have more than a utility value. There is another side of arithmetic, however (one that compares with the appreciation of the use of words in reading and discrimination in the selection of words in writing), in

which a small number of children may find an interest and outlet, that is pure manipulation and interrelation of numbers. But apart from this aspect which appeals to only the few, most arithmetic in the Primary School consists of mechanical processes which, like the techniques of reading and writing, must be mastered before full use can be made of the subject as a tool in everyday affairs.

The active periods described above do not provide the right conditions for acquiring these mechanical skills. It is only through constant practice that fluency is gained in reading, an easy quick style is acquired in writing and speed and accuracy is reached in simple arithmetical operations. The study of a subject or topic along activity lines provides the incentive and the opportunity to use these tools, but it is only with practice that skill is attained and definite lessons should be planned for this purpose.

A more formal approach is needed, too, in other aspects of Primary School work. The knowledge children acquire through the study of different topics is incomplete and unorganized. This knowledge must be drawn together and reduced to order in a set lesson and some piece of work needed in the next stage of the particular occupation in hand may have to be taught in a formal manner.

Such lessons though they do not involve movement nor the direct search for knowledge are not merely 'listening' periods. The children are actively engaged in practising some operation in arithmetic or some skill in writing or in reading for its own sake; they are still taking an active part in the lesson, therefore, and their desire to be doing something is satisfied. Moreover, many children thoroughly enjoy practice in mechanical operations and take a real pleasure in trying to improve on the previous day's work.

From a character training point of view, too, these lessons are valuable. When they grow older the children will discover that every occupation has its routine work and dull, even tedious, tasks. They discover, too, that skill can only be attained after

hard practice, and it is through these formal lessons that children learn to persevere in the routine work for the sake of the more interesting study that had temporarily to be put on one side.

The active periods allow a child to gain experience and to try his hand at a variety of occupations, giving scope for the development of talents and personality. The practice periods help him to attain as high a standard in specific subjects as his natural abilities allow. The active and practical periods together, therefore, satisfy the psychological needs of Junior children and provide the setting for the fulfilment of the first three functions of the Primary School. The fulfilment of the fourth function,¹ that of classification for secondary education, is dependent on the teacher's observation and interpretation of a child's activities and attainments during these periods. Given adequate space and equipment it is quite possible even with classes as large as they are to-day to organize the work along the lines just described, but it is a very skilful teacher who can observe 40-50 children sufficiently closely to be able to predict future development. Real success in this important part of the teacher's work, upon which the fulfilment of the fourth function of the Primary School depends, can only be achieved when classes are reduced to under forty.

MECHANICAL AIDS AND ACTIVITY METHODS

During the last ten to fifteen years experiments have been carried out in schools on the use of mechanical aids, such as radio, gramophone, epidiascope and film. The work has been chiefly associated with Post-Primary education and, except for wireless and the gramophone, little use has been made of these devices in the teaching of young children. They have their place in Primary School work, however, though their use is restricted by the principles which govern methods of teaching at this stage.

¹ See Chapter V, pp. 97-113.

Aural Aids

The radio is an externally imposed form of education and has, therefore, less value as a method of teaching in Primary Schools than in Secondary. It is, moreover, essentially a class method in contrast to the individual character of the work described above, and it is rarely that a broadcast course fits into the work in hand. It is possible of course to plan the work of the class round the broadcast talks, but this is contrary to the activity approach with its spontaneous development of occupations and its tendency to follow unprepared lines; and it takes from the teacher the responsibility of planning her own work which is highly undesirable in view of the fact that only she knows just what her particular class needs.

The radio, however, has its place in Primary School education. A single talk on any subject by a speaker with first hand knowledge may be very stimulating and may lead to some new occupation, or it may fit in with the work in progress. It may form a useful summing up or it may give that piece of information that has not been forthcoming from sources available to the school. But it is inevitable that much time will be wasted, however good the broadcast, in listening to matter which is not immediately relevant to the occupation in hand.

A series of talks if used in the right way may give rise to very interesting work, and form the centre of some activity. No preparation is needed as a rule for the first talk of the series; but during the talk both teacher and children (particularly the teacher) have to be very much on the alert to note the many points that will need explanation later and the many openings for further work. This is one of the most difficult tasks of a teacher. The value of the talk from the educative point of view depends largely on the follow up. The subject needs to be discussed and studied so that the children are ready to take full advantage of the next talk. After the second talk there should be plenty of material for some kind of occupation and succeeding talks provide more openings and other possible

lines of development. On the whole, however, the value of the radio for Primary School work is rather limited. Some of the general public and Children's Hour programmes may often be used for educational purposes with more effect than the series designed especially for schools.

The case is different if the children themselves are the mechanics, the operators, the performers, and the announcers of news, concerts, plays, etc., to other classes or other schools. When used in this way the educational value of broadcasting is almost unlimited.

The gramophone fits into Primary School methods better than the radio, though its width of application is more limited. Its use for dancing, music and speech is evident and it has the advantage over the wireless in that the record can be stopped when necessary and repeated if required. The gramophone is in fact an educational tool which the teacher can use to suit his own ends and to fit into the programme of work developed by the class, while in the case of radio the children and teacher have to adapt their own plans to fit into the scheme of the broadcast talks. A gramophone, too, can be turned on with the minimum of delay at any moment, unlike the broadcast talk which is necessarily at a fixed time. A gramophone, therefore, can fit into an activity programme far more easily than the wireless.

Visual Aids

The same difference in value as aids to education in the Primary School can be seen in a comparison of the film and the epidiascope. The former has to follow a pre-arranged plan and run its course, while the latter can be made to serve the immediate purpose.

Like the radio the film can be of value; it probably has more value than radio since it teaches through the eye as well as through the ear, and the majority of children learn more readily through the eye than through the ear. A film can often

make an admirable introduction to or summing up of a topic. But not many schools are in a position to show it at exactly the right moment. Most Local Education Authorities have projectors. These are loaned to schools but booking has to be done well in advance since the number of instruments available is usually limited. It is not always possible to forecast some weeks ahead just when the projector will be needed and the value of the film in the scheme of work is greatly reduced if it has to be shown just before the summing up is appropriate or a week too late when the children have already become absorbed in the next piece of work.

The sound versus the silent film is a matter of controversy. In some sound films the commentary is very good, but however good it is, the teacher nearly always needs to supplement or enlarge. On the other hand the teacher needs to know the silent film very well to make a really useful spontaneous commentary as it unfolds. It is not always possible to arrange a pre-view, and it is perhaps almost better to have no film at all than one which the teacher has not seen beforehand.

Another factor which limits the value of the film is the elaborate equipment needed. Mechanical aids to teaching lose much of their value in Primary School work if they cannot be set up at a moment's notice and with the mere turn of a switch. Like the radio, many of the films that can be seen in the cinemas, such as nature films, historical and documentary films and others can be of more value educationally at the Primary School stage than the set piece shown in the school hall.

Of much greater use than the moving-film projector is the film-strip projector. This is far more in keeping with the group and individual methods of the Primary School. The whole room need not be darkened; a small group of children can be gathered round the pictures; and details can be discussed and features pointed out in a way that is not possible with the larger instrument and its moving pictures. Moreover, the sequence of pictures can be compiled by the children with the

help of the teacher, and when used in this way the film-strip projector has a similar educational value to that of the school broadcasting activity. Although this type of projector has been on the market for many years, it is only now finding its way into schools and the possibilities in Primary as well as Secondary education seem considerable.

The epidiascope group of visual aids is probably the most useful for ordinary purposes in a Primary School. The group consists of the ordinary lantern, the episcopes, and, if they are combined in one machine, the epidiascope.

The epidiascope, like the moving-film projector, is a bulky piece of apparatus that few Local Authorities are able to provide for every school. It has, therefore, the same drawback that the projector has in that it will generally have to be booked well in advance and the date forecast may not be exactly right. Like the projector, too, the instrument will not be available during the course of the work at the various moments when it could be used with advantage.

The episcopes and lantern are more usable and practicable for Primary School purposes. They are sufficiently small to be moved easily from one room to another and they can be set up very quickly. They can be used for small groups of children without darkening the whole room, so that other children can be getting on with their own particular occupations; they are relatively cheap, too, and can be made easily and at very little cost by children in Post-Primary schools. The episcopes have an advantage over the lantern in that the pictures to be shown can be reflected direct from the book or the print, while slides have to be made for the lantern. On the other hand the illumination is not as good as in a lantern and therefore the room has to be darker, limiting the work of those children not concerned with that particular set of pictures. An ordinary lantern can be used in a room only darkened round the screen and is very satisfactory for all diagrams and line illustrations.

The first requirement of all these forms of teaching aids is

simplicity. It is only simple apparatus, easily worked, quickly set up and available at any moment that is a real aid in the activity methods of a Primary School.

METHOD AND THE SCHOOL SETTING

The Present Opportunity

The ease or difficulty of a teacher's task is largely determined by the accommodation and equipment available. The requirements for a class spending half its time in experiment and activity are very different from those needed for a class spending all its time sitting at desks, and old standards of accommodation are quite inadequate and old types of furniture quite unsuitable. Changes in school buildings necessarily lag behind changes in teaching method. Solidity and high cost of construction do not favour rapid change, hence, whenever there has been a big step forward in the development of methods, the new ideas have had to be modified by the character of the existing buildings. It is obviously educationally unsound that teaching methods should be governed by such limitations, but unfortunately that has frequently been the case with Primary School developments, since government policy has been directed mainly towards improving educational facilities for older children.

The period of building upon which we are now embarking coincides with a combination of circumstances which presents a unique opportunity for providing accommodation and equipment in accordance with the educational needs of children between seven and eleven. In the first place extensive re-planning of urban areas is resulting in the development of hitherto waste land and in these areas new Primary Schools will have to be built. Many schools have been destroyed through enemy action, and in reconstructing these consideration can be given to the requirements of modern methods of education. Other schools, especially in evacuating areas, were given over to the Civil Defence Authorities who adapted them to meet their requirements; the process of reinstatement of these schools

provides another opportunity for modifying the building to suit present-day needs. At the same time the importance of the Primary School phase and the need for revision of teaching practices have been recognized by all connected with education and there is every hope that advantage will be taken of the present opportunities so that new schools will be built and existing ones adapted to suit the needs of Primary School education.

Requirements for Active Periods

Some time must necessarily elapse before development plans can be put into operation and the best possible use has to be made of the present conditions. The most important requirement for work during active periods is space.¹ Children who are actively engaged in doing and making take up more space than children sitting; the furniture needed for this type of work is larger than that needed for sedentary occupations; and additional space is needed for the display of models. In 1871 the area allowed per child in average attendance was 8 sq. ft.; a room of 400 sq. ft. therefore was considered large enough for a class of fifty children. Even for class-teaching purposes this is entirely inadequate and activity work is practically impossible. The area allowed was increased to 10 sq. ft. in 1890 and it remained at that figure until the nineteen thirties when the Ministry (then the Board) of Education reviewed school accommodation. In 1936 the 'area per child' basis of calculation gave way to the recommendation of a minimum area of 480 sq. ft. and a suitable area of 520 sq. ft. for all classrooms. The latest regulations suggest 520 sq. ft. as the minimum for a classroom and 600 sq. ft. for practical rooms. During the period of building following the formation of the Board of Education, accommodation was based on a scale of 10 sq. ft. per child in average attendance and schools were built with classrooms of about 600 sq. ft. for classes of fifty to sixty children. Schools of

¹ Plate XII *a* and *b*, facing p. 144.

this period, therefore, have the great advantage of adequate space in the classrooms, which the newer buildings do not possess, even if in other respects they are unsuited to young children.

During the active periods the children may be working individually, or in groups, or as a class, and the room should be capable of adaptation to any one of these organizations. Moreover, any subject may arise, such as painting, modelling, dramatizing, or searching for information in books during the course of the period making the classroom a 'General Purposes' ¹ room in which every type of school activity may be performed at any time. Work of this kind entails great variety of teaching apparatus of the rather bulky type for which adequate storage space is required on the spot, and furniture should be light so that it can be arranged or stacked out of the way as desired.

Special Rooms versus General Purposes Rooms ²

It is clear that to equip each classroom as a general purposes room involves considerable expense, a multiplication of books, mechanical devices and fittings being inevitable. The alternative is the provision of special subject rooms. If there is an art room, for example, and painting became necessary during the course of the work the individual child or group of children concerned would go to the art room and do the work there. Provided that the social training in the school is satisfactory there should be no need for a teacher to accompany them and she can remain with the rest of the class supervising the work in her own room. Clearly groups of children from many classrooms may find themselves in the art room at the same time. This is an advantage rather than otherwise as it creates an interest in the work of other classes and breaks down the isolation that sometimes surrounds the separate courses in the school. But it is impossible for a room used in this way to be the perma-

¹ In Government publications this term is used for practical rooms, not, as here, for classrooms.

² Cf. p. 150.

nent home of a particular class. Special rooms of this kind, therefore, would have to be in addition to the classrooms and the cost of many such rooms would offset any reduction of expenditure resulting from eliminating the necessity of providing expensive equipment in all classrooms.

There are other drawbacks, too. For example, there would be a great deal of traffic about the school, some children going to one room, some to another; children in the lower age groups are constantly needing help so that waste of time is inevitable either for the group in the special room or the group remaining in the classroom, according to where the teacher happens to be. The teacher, too, has a more exhausting time if she has to move to and fro between two or more rooms. There is also the risk, indeed certainty, of waste of materials unless a teacher is present to supervise and guide its use. To appoint a specialist teacher to be in charge of such a room would mean one of two things: either she would be additional to the number of teachers required for classes or she would be one of the class mistresses. The former arrangement would be very helpful, but under present conditions, which may continue for many years, it is not likely to materialize. If she were a class mistress then the room would become the permanent home of her class; the free use of it by the rest of the school would be impossible and the spontaneous development of the work, which is the essence of the method, would be hampered. On the whole, therefore, special subject rooms do not fit easily into activity methods and with the exception, perhaps, of physical training are not necessary in a Primary School.

The use of Spare Rooms

Spare rooms, on the other hand, which can be put to a variety of uses, are of very great value. They can be used, for example, for special activities connected with some particular topic under discussion; they can be used for co-operative work affecting more than one class; or they can be given over to

types of occupations which cannot be carried on satisfactorily in the classroom. Such occupations as woodwork, so noisy that it is apt to disturb the work in the classroom, or making scenery which takes up much space, are better done in a spare room where the bulky equipment and furniture suitable to the heavier forms of craft can always be available.

A room as free of furniture as possible with perhaps a piano and nesting chairs is a valuable asset to a school for such occupations as music, movement, mime, puppet plays, dramatic work, verse speaking and radio. All these activities can be carried on by small groups of children in a spare room whereas they might be disturbing in a classroom where the rest of the children might be engaged in quieter work.

Another use to which a spare room can be put is practice in the 3 R's. This work needs a quiet, orderly room and if one is put aside for this purpose individual children or groups are able to practise some process at the moment when such practice is most valuable.

In every branch of the curriculum of a Primary School in which children are encouraged to learn and find out things for themselves there is need for a large number of books of reference. If these books are in classrooms they are at hand for quick reference with the minimum waste of time, but such an arrangement means several copies of the same book. A reading room is a valuable introduction to the use of a library and if such a room contains story as well as reference books it will be a much sought after room during leisure time, such as after dinner, by those more studious children who prefer to read quietly rather than indulge in noisy play outside.¹

A room of this kind should be comfortably furnished and homely, with tables and upright chairs for serious study and lounge chairs, window seats and small low tables for pleasure reading. The books should range from quite advanced technical books to simple fairy tales, and from encyclopaedias and atlases to magazines and newspapers. The whole room in

¹ Plate III, facing p. 135; Plate XII a, facing p. 144.

colour scheme and design should create a sense of ease and leisure; it should not be treated therefore as a teaching room and should never be used for class instruction.

The School Setting as a Contribution to Primary School Education

As a link between home and school and as a place where training for home life is an important aspect of education, part of the building should be home-like in character. This can be achieved best perhaps in a dining-block, which can be in the form of a large private house where dining in living in a home can be given more easily and naturally than in the necessarily more institutional character of the learning rooms.

The material setting includes, of course, the grounds, and the layout of these is as important as the design of the building. For physical development both a paved playground and grass playing fields are needed. Part of the grounds, too, should be given over to the cultivation of plants and the keeping of live-stock, and space is needed for large-scale modelling, especially in relation to local geography.

Besides all these requirements there should be a garden for leisure and enjoyment which might be attached to the dining-block, and it is only when all these demands are met that the grounds can be considered as making a full contribution to the education of each child.

CHAPTER IV

THE CONTENT OF PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION

THE CURRICULUM AND THE FUNCTIONS OF THE SCHOOL

IT has been suggested that the four main functions of the Primary School are the development of the physical and mental abilities of each child, the establishment of standards of social behaviour, preparation for everyday life, and the classification of children for secondary education. The fourth function does not affect the content of education and will be discussed in a later chapter, but the first three functions determine to a very large extent the curriculum of the school.

The Curriculum and Physical and Mental Development

PHYSICAL FITNESS. Physical training, games and dancing provide the exercise necessary for muscular development. The varied and purposeful group activities characteristic of physical training to-day promote physical growth as successfully as the formal drill of a few years ago and are more in keeping with the needs of Primary School children, at the same time providing opportunities for leadership and initiative which were not possible under the old system. Experiments are now being carried out in the use of gymnastic apparatus in Primary Schools and developments in that direction may be expected shortly.

Various games preparatory to the standard games of the country and Greek and Folk dancing can be included under this heading. Another activity, too, known as Modern Dance has been introduced recently. This is not unlike Greek dancing but it demands more imagination on the part of the children and gives greater scope for creative expression. Modern Dance

is only in its very early experimental stages, however, and it is not possible as yet to estimate its real educational value.

Three other branches, Rest, Food and Hygiene, are also closely related to health. A period of rest is needed by many children after vigorous physical or mental activity. Normally this period can be short and arranged in the classroom when the need for it arises. Some children, especially those who have returned to school after an illness, may require a longer period to recuperate and special arrangements may have to be made for them. A few may even need a fixed period of rest every afternoon.

The provision of meals and milk is obviously important for the maintenance of health and although at present parents are under no obligation to take advantage of feeding facilities at school, the midday meal and the provision of milk should be considered as essential parts of the curriculum.

Hygiene, in its two aspects personal and material, forms the background to all the work associated with physical development. The hygienic character of the school building is not only essential for the maintenance of the general health of the community and a check on the spread of disease but is important in setting standards of cleanliness and of healthy living conditions which will be of value to the children when they make homes of their own. The material aspect of hygiene then contributes incidentally to the development of health: personal hygiene directly affects it. It can be approached from two angles, formal lessons and individual practice. For Primary School children the practice of the rules of hygiene is clearly the better method. It can be supplemented, of course, by short talks pointing out the reasons for the habits which we wish the children to acquire, but anything approaching a formal series of lessons on hygiene is out of place in a Primary School.

MENTAL GROWTH. The curriculum for mental development is not so easy to define. Every side of school life contributes to a greater or less degree to mental growth but it is useful to

consider the particular types of work that provide the maximum opportunity for the development of mental attributes. Activity methods described above involve varied occupations related to the natural interests of the children. Much of this interest centres round the immediate environment and it is in this field that the subject matter for occupations should be sought; whatever the character of the locality, whether city or country, topics are at hand round which occupations can be developed.

A study of the environment in all its aspects therefore should form an important part of the school curriculum. The work should include visits, collecting information, making maps, exploring and sketching different parts and finding the plants that grow in the district so that by the end of the Primary School period the children should possess a working knowledge of the geography of their own area. They should be able to direct strangers to different parts; they should know the chief places of interest and how to get to them; they should know what the local products are and where other commodities seen in the shops come from. Local history is more difficult than local geography since it involves 'time', a difficult conception for young children. The historical aspects of the neighbourhood, therefore, are more appropriately studied during the last year in the Primary School, though of course, anything arising naturally out of the occupations of the children can generally be dealt with at whatever stage it occurs.

The desire to make things and to answer such questions as 'How does it work?' 'Where does it come from?' 'How does it grow?' introduce the need for constructive activities. Hand-work in as wide a variety of materials as possible, simple machinery, meccano sets and models, provide opportunities for experiment in different substances and in the elements of mechanics.

The growing of plants and the keeping of pets provide experience with living matter, but it is important to remember that growing plants in the classroom may become artificial and keeping pets under any but the best conditions is a training in

cruelty. Some lovely little indoor gardens have been constructed in sinks in classrooms but these can never wholly take the place of outdoor gardening. In schools where there are no facilities for outdoor work, however, they form a most valuable substitute and in schools where the facilities are available they supplement the cultivation outside.¹

The keeping of pets presents greater difficulties. Few city schools have suitable accommodation for mammals, though more could be done in the way of keeping a school pet such as a dog or cat. Caged birds give a false conception of the nature of these creatures and it is much easier, and gives better training to the children, to provide outdoor feeding tables and to watch birds in their natural setting. In rural areas, of course, there are plenty of opportunities for the study of birds. In the residential districts and parts of an urban area a wide variety of birds can be seen by those trained to look out for such things and even in the heart of a city pigeons and sparrows can be watched in their natural freedom. Water creatures can be kept in school provided the necessary care is taken to ensure that the water is always in good condition. Watching butterflies emerge is always fascinating to young children and there is no need to use a vivarium for this purpose. There are examples of schools where the chrysalis had its home in one of the indoor sink gardens and when the butterfly emerged it was allowed freedom to fly about the classroom; after a few days trying its wings, it flew out into the open. This is real study of nature and real training in the care of living creatures.

The curriculum, too, should include subjects which give opportunities for the free expression of a child's creative urge, which may be expressed through different channels, such as Art, Craft, Music, Movement or Creative Writing. Bearing in mind the need for width of experience and experiment these subjects should be approached from as many angles as possible. In art, for example, there should be opportunities for work in any media — pencil, pastel, paint and charcoal — and freedom

¹ See Appendix v A, p. 298, and Plate VIII b, facing p. 140.

to depict any subject or express any idea. In craft, too, cardboard, paper, clay, plasticine, paper pulp and wood should be available for modelling and other forms of craft such as weaving and needlecrafts may satisfy the needs of some children.

Music is perhaps at present the most restricted of these creative occupations although it appeals to so many different interests and forms of expression. Many teachers seem to forget that singing is only one form of music and that playing pipes and recorders, using percussion and other instruments are also ways of making music. It can appeal to the constructive interests of children through the making of instruments. Not only making bamboo pipes, which is not uncommon in schools, but carillon, xylophone, drums, psaltery and a variety of other instruments can be made out of very simple material; but the full creative value of music is only obtained when the children make their own tunes as well as their own instruments.

Movement may also be creative. Modern Dance for example aims not only at muscular development but also at self-expression through movement, and mime has long been a means of representing ideas.

These four means of self-expression — Art, Craft, Music and Movement — are associated with some practical activity related to the senses. There is a fifth form of self-expression which uses language as its medium. In the Primary School the use of language is growing and only a small proportion of children have sufficient facility with words to turn to composition as a natural means of self-expression, but those who do so should be given every encouragement. Self-expression in the spoken word is also important and drama and puppetry may provide the necessary opportunities for this form of creative work, but it must be remembered that the creative value of these activities as methods of verbal expression depends on the children using their own language and not conning the words of another.

*The Curriculum and Standards of Social Behaviour*¹

As a member of a community a citizen has responsibilities in setting standards both of social behaviour and of material surroundings. These are linked with two aspects of mental development that are only beginning to unfold at the Primary School stage, the power to use language and the growth of aesthetic appreciation.

THE POWER TO USE LANGUAGE. The development of standards of social behaviour is associated with the power to use words to express ideas and the ability to reason by means of language. The curriculum, therefore, must include material which will increase a child's vocabulary and stimulate his imagination and it is those subjects that take a child beyond the limits of his environment and increase his factual knowledge that have most to contribute. The Humanities—History, Geography, Literature and Religious Knowledge—fulfil these conditions and since they are largely concerned with the lives of great men and women of all ages and all countries they are also directly concerned with setting standards of social and moral behaviour.

It is not until the last year in the Primary School that time has any significance for children so that history need not necessarily be treated chronologically. The biographical approach is more in keeping with the outlook of Junior children and the lives of great men, and stories of great inventions in the realms of science and machinery, of great achievements in the realms of medicine and the Fine Arts, and of great heroism and endurance in missionary fields belong to the history scheme in the Primary School.

Geography is not concerned with right and wrong social behaviour but with different social patterns, and it is this characteristic that makes it so important as a means of social training. A logical and scientific approach is impossible, at any rate, in the early years of Junior School life. As in history, the human aspect has to be stressed, and by the end of the Primary

¹ Cf. p. 164.

School period the children might be expected to know something about the lives of people in different parts of the globe, and stories of the great discoveries and explorations.

It is not possible to define the work in literature. It is determined partly by the activities and occupations upon which the children are engaged and partly on the taste of the teacher; but through these stories children gradually formulate a moral code which forms the basis of social behaviour all through life. The most important subject, however, in this work of building up standards of behaviour is religious knowledge. The examples of social and moral behaviour set by the men and women in the stories of the New Testament and some parts of the Old presents a standard of living towards which every child should be encouraged to strive.

But the development of ethical standards is not only achieved through the humanities; practical example is essential. The teacher has an important part to play, but her example is less effective than practice by the children themselves¹ and the school should be organized as a social community in which the children learn that, as members of the community, they have both responsibilities and rights. Primary School children do not profit greatly by direct lessons on rights and responsibilities but they can form a very efficient self-governing body² since their sense of justice is sound and is not swayed by emotional considerations as is so often the case with older children. A social setting, therefore, in which the children are responsible for the discipline of the school and of themselves should be a recognized part of their education — the daily assembly, too, should be looked upon as part of the curriculum, not only because it draws the school together as a unit, but also because it sets a 'tone' which pervades the whole life of the community.

The introduction of meals in schools has provided opportunities for the practice of conventional manners and standards of behaviour at the dining-table and for learning the duties of a

¹ Cf. p. 227.

² See Part II, Section vi b, pp. 276-285.

host in looking after the needs of others.¹ The after-dinner period becomes a test of the success of the school's training in independence, self-reliance and self-discipline. Children should be able to choose their own occupations and arrange their own games without interference by the teacher and the extent to which they are able to do this is a measure of the efficiency of the social training of the school.

THE GROWTH OF AESTHETIC APPRECIATION. It is the quality of the citizen's aesthetic appreciation that sets the standard of the material surroundings of the community. Aesthetic appreciation is an attribute that is only beginning to develop during the Primary School stage and a child's educational environment should favour its growth. The importance attached to the environment by educationists is illustrated in the Rede Lecture, already quoted: 'The most famous passage on education in Plato is the one in which he insists on the importance of atmosphere in education: "The young should live in a wholesome climate and drink in good from every quarter, so that like a wind bringing health from healthy lands, some influence from noble works may from childhood upwards constantly fall on ear and eye and insensibly draw them into sympathy and harmony with the beauty of reason."'² This 'wholesome climate' consists of two elements — the human and the material, that is, the teacher and the building. The function of the teacher will be discussed in a later chapter but the material setting is essentially a part of the curriculum and should be considered in that connection.

Buildings at present fall far short of the ideal but much can be done to turn the classroom into a place where it is pleasant to spend several hours of the day. The arrangement of the pictures on the walls and the placing of flowers are of importance; the quality of the pictures, the design and colour of the vases and the arrangement of the furniture are all within the teacher's

¹ See Plate IV c, facing p. 136.

² SIR R. LIVINGSTONE. *Plato and Modern Education*, p. 10.

jurisdiction and a little care and thought in these matters can convert the most drab classroom into a cheerful and attractive centre of education. Books, whether textbooks in arithmetic or reference books for the library, should be well printed and pleasing to the eye and fingers; furniture should be of good design and the colour scheme should be more than the utility brown and green that so often disfigures our schools.

The Curriculum and Preparation for Everyday Life

The third function, that of preparing for everyday life, brings into the curriculum the 3 R's. These three subjects — reading, writing and arithmetic — are not only the skills upon which the life of the community depends; they are the bases of all education both for work and leisure. They are, therefore, fundamentally important in relation to the first two functions of the Primary School as well as to the third.

As subjects, of course, reading and writing skill are embodied in literature and composition and, therefore, the curriculum cannot easily be defined. During the Primary School stage the children should acquire fluency and speed in both these skills but the actual reading books and written matter will depend on the work in hand. By the end of the period the majority of children should be able to read any ordinary book of a non-technical nature, they should be able to follow simple instructions and understand works of the difficulty of, say, *Robinson Crusoe*.

By eleven the children should be able to write legibly, probably only slowly in ink but quite rapidly in pencil. Many will be sufficiently at ease to practise different styles, for example the style of a favourite school mistress. This, together with increasing facility and familiarity, brings the deterioration that often characterizes writing in the top class of a Primary School. Some form of cursive writing should have been attained by all but the exceptionally slow children and most should be able to use ink by the time they move on to the Secondary stage of

education. It seems unnecessary to require the use of ink in all school work. To demand ink, for example, in arithmetic, or when jotting down points from an encyclopaedia or making preparatory notes for a play or composition puts an unnecessary obstacle in the way of concentration on the main task and reduces speed. There are plenty of opportunities for using ink for finished pieces of work and definite practice periods can be arranged.

Arithmetic is in some ways the least important of the 3 R's but it is a necessary part of a child's educational equipment and for some children the subject has real fascination. The essential ground to cover in the Primary School stage seems to be the four rules in Money, the common Weights and Measures and in Number. There are many interesting developments of these, such as graphical work, fractions, number puzzles and games, well within the scope of Primary School children, which can make this one of the most interesting and practical subjects of the curriculum. No child should be restricted to the minimum ground to be covered and those who enjoy manipulating figures should be given every opportunity for exploring the mathematical world not only in arithmetic, but also in geometry and algebra.

SCHEMES OF WORK

The curriculum, then, seems to fall into seven categories, each primarily associated with one particular function and contributing to a greater or less degree to the fulfilment of the others. These categories are:

- | | | |
|-----|---------------------------|---|
| I | Physical Activities | Physical Training, Games, Dancing, Rest, Meals, Hygiene |
| II | Environment Activities | Local Geography, Local History, Local Nature Study |
| III | Constructional Activities | Handwork, Simple Physical and Biological Science |

iv	Creative Activities	Art, Craft, Music, Movement, Creative Writing
v	Imaginative Activities	Literature, History, Geography, Drama, Religious Knowledge
vi	Tool Subjects	Reading, Writing, Arithmetic
vii	The School Setting	The basis and background of the whole process of education, and of the formation of moral, social and aesthetic standards.

Schemes or No Schemes

It has been suggested by many educationists that schemes of work are not necessary. Certainly they do not seem to be compatible with activity methods, the very essence of which is natural growth and development. Any attempt to force the work into pre-arranged channels will interfere with this spontaneous evolution and deprive the children of the opportunity of exercising their own powers of initiative and self-expression which makes this method of teaching so worth while.

On the other hand activity methods may result in a collection of miscellaneous information with little or no connection, producing an unorganized body of knowledge, or a body of knowledge centering round a topic rather than a subject. The teacher, too, however experienced, needs to know what she is aiming at; she cannot provide the right material or give guidance unless she has some idea of the ground she is trying to cover. A further point to be remembered is that under the new Act, all the children proceed to a secondary school of some kind so organized that transfer from one type to another can be effected at 13+ if necessary. A basis of knowledge common to all children at the end of the Primary School stage appears, therefore, to be essential. These considerations suggest that a scheme of some kind is desirable.

The purpose of the scheme should be twofold; it should be a guide to the teacher and a basis for the work of the post-primary departments. At the same time it should be sufficiently generalized to allow children and teacher to pursue a topic in any direction that seems to offer an interesting field of study and experiment. A statement of the minimum ground to be covered seems to satisfy these conditions. If the teacher knows these minimum requirements she can allow the children great freedom in the development of an occupation, and she can group the subjects and determine the order of the topics by the way the work unfolds. Anything in the nature of a 'course' planned to develop in a pre-ordained order lacks flexibility and is quite out of keeping with the freedom needed for present-day methods of teaching.

Drawing up Schemes of Work

Knowledge is organized into different categories which have in the past been the subjects taught in schools and for this reason the curriculum is usually classified under subject headings. With the change of the focus of education from *knowledge* to *children* it is necessary to ask whether this classification is still fitting, or whether some other basis of division might not be more in keeping with the modern outlook on education.

It is possible, for example, to draw up schemes of work round the functions of the school or to classify into the groups of activities into which the subject matter falls or even to base the curriculum on topics. There is much to be said for a classification which emphasizes the purpose of the work. It is so easy for teachers, with their academic training, to think in terms of subjects and to lose sight of the purpose for which the subjects are being taught, forgetting that it is this purpose which should guide them in the selection of subject matter from amongst the vast body of knowledge in existence. Again, children brought up in a school working on activity lines do not think in terms of subjects; to them the knowledge gained is associated with the

occupations that have been pursued or the topics round which their work has centred. It is helpful to a teacher, therefore, to have her work planned round these points rather than round the more artificial categories of subjects. On the other hand such divisions, while educationally sound, do not conform to the accepted classification of knowledge and as the Primary School is only a part of a much larger educational system which has for its aim training for life it seems desirable to retain the universal subject basis in drawing up schemes of work.

Activity methods, therefore, create two problems for the teacher in relation to schemes of work. One is that the topics studied and occupations pursued by the class have to be analysed¹ in terms of subjects in order to discover how much ground has been covered and what parts of the scheme remain to be done. This involves a very careful review of the work — no light task when different groups in the same class may have studied different topics. The second problem is concerned with the children's tendency to associate their knowledge with the topics they have studied resulting in an inability to fit it into a scheme which is common to that of other people. At some time, therefore, children must be introduced to the universal classification of knowledge into subjects.² At first sight the changing interests and outlook of children between ten and eleven would suggest that the last year of the Primary phase might be suitable, though this has not been borne out by the results of a recent investigation.³ Further study and research, therefore, are needed before this problem can be solved.

School Organization and Schemes of Work

CLASSES WITH MIXED AGE GROUPS. Problems affecting the drawing up of schemes of work are raised by school organization as well as by methods of teaching, and schools where the number of classes is not equal to or a multiple of the number of

¹ Cf. Tables 6 (facing p. 188), 12 (facing p. 198), 18 (p. 244).

² Cf. pp. 150, 167, 196. ³ See Part II, Section v a, pp. 233-246.

years covered, the task of planning the work is a difficult one. In a school of five classes, for example, which covers a period of three years, eight to eleven, a single age group has been known to break up into seven sub-divisions each following a different path through the school.¹

It is clear that in a school of this type children will have to proceed to a Post-Primary department from at any rate the top two classes and possibly the top three. Since it is probable that, owing to the usual practice of classifying children on ability, the weaker pupils will be in the lower classes, those very children who need the easiest step from Primary to Secondary education have to take the biggest jump. In subjects like English and arithmetic, where progress is governed by individual ability, no difficulty need arise, but the problem of ensuring progressive schemes in the humanities and factual subjects is very great.

ORGANIZATION INTO 'STREAMS'. Where the yearly entry is such that two or more complete classes can be formed in the one age group the problem of progress through the school with its accompanying difficulties of syllabus does not arise.

The age group is generally divided on a basis of ability. This creates the A, B, C division which has resulted in the unfortunate practice of labelling children A, B or C and of speaking of an individual as 'a "C" child', sometimes even in the presence of the child himself. Grouping of this kind limits the range of ability and to that extent restricts the work that can be done by the class as a whole. On the other hand, it allows the planning of parallel schemes of work covering the whole course, each especially designed to suit the average ability of the class.

But the 'streams' need not be based on ability, and classification can be effected on an age basis. This can be done in two ways. One possibility is to make horizontal divisions; in a two-stream school this would result in an age range of about six months in each class; in a three-stream school the range would be reduced to about four months. Differences of age, therefore,

¹ See Appendix IV, p. 296, and Pt. II, Section III, Table 11, facing p. 196.

would be small but the range of ability would be that normal to any group of children of a given age. The other possibility is to divide the age group vertically, making two or three parallel classes covering the whole age range. Either of these methods will produce the wide differences of ability so useful in activity work.

SCHOOLS WITH A YEARLY ENTRY OF LESS THAN ONE CLASS. Schools with an entry of less than one class, say between twenty-five and thirty children a year, are faced with problems of grouping similar to those of schools with an age group greater than one class, but the effect on the planning of the curriculum is different. In a school, for example, where there are three classes covering a four-year course, a classification on age would give a range of about sixteen months in each class, and every child would have to remain two years in one or other of the classes. The problems of planning the work therefore are associated with ensuring that children remaining in a class a second year do not cover the same ground, at any rate, in the same way, and that children entering the class do not suffer through not having covered the ground the children already in the class covered the previous year.

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS TO THE PROBLEMS OF PLANNING THE CURRICULUM. There are various ways of overcoming these difficulties. One is to divide the scheme into as many sections as there are classes. In a school of six classes, for example, covering the four year Primary phase the curriculum would be divided into six sections. The four-year course also would be divided into six periods of about thirty-two school weeks, and the children would be transferred from one class to the next at the end of each thirty-two week period. The chief drawback to this procedure is that the change of class does not coincide with administrative terms. Educationally this does not matter very much, except at the long mid-summer break when some adjustment of the length of the period might have to be made,

but it does introduce a certain amount of additional clerical work.

Another solution is to organize one or more parallel classes at the stage in the four-year course that seems to be most convenient. In the example given here there would have to be two pairs of parallel classes. These have to be adjusted from year to year according to the requirements of each age group, but even so it is inevitable that some children will miss certain parts of the course.

The third solution is to cover the whole field of subject matter from different angles each year.¹ This procedure has much to commend it. It is in keeping with the free activity methods described above since each class can follow out its own line of development covering the whole scheme each year. Each year's work will be a unit in itself, independent of any other year's work, and yet since it covers the same ground, allows of cross reference and revision at every point. Each child will cover the whole course from four different angles but need never repeat work done previously; nor will he be handicapped through having missed work done by others in the class. All the children of one age group will not necessarily have covered the ground from the same four angles but that is an advantage rather than otherwise as the width of knowledge that a class of children can draw upon between them by the time they reach their fourth year is all the greater. Many rural schools and small urban schools have for some years used this method of overcoming the difficulty of children remaining two or three years in the same class.

In an 'All Age' school an added difficulty arises. It may be necessary in such a school to combine an Infant group with a lower Junior group or a Senior group with an upper Junior group, thus forming classes in which the method of teaching as well as the subject matter should vary with the different sections. The only satisfactory solution in this 'All Age' type of school lies

¹ See Part II, Section III, Tables 10 (facing p. 196), 11 (facing p. 196), 12 (facing p. 198), and pp. 196-197.

in staffing, which should be generous enough to allow the Infant, Junior and Senior sections of the school to be treated as separate units.¹

It is clear, however, that these problems originate in the size of school, and it might be said that the obvious solution is so to organize the schools that those types which create difficulties do not exist. This would mean controlling the size of the district served by a school in such a way that the yearly entry is approximately equal to one, two, three or more classes according to the standard of staffing in operation; but it is not always possible to do this.

In sparsely populated districts, for example, the area required to bring the annual entry up to, say, forty is often so large that the practical difficulty of getting the children to school arises. In more densely populated areas, even if in the first instance the school were planned for a one or more form entry, fluctuations of population may soon upset the balance.

The only real solution is greater flexibility in standards of staffing. For many years special staffing scales have been in operation for small schools in rural areas, and in many urban areas difficulties of organization are taken into consideration in determining the number of teachers required, but the present standard of staffing over the country as a whole will not allow special consideration to be given in every case and at present problems of organization cannot be eliminated altogether.

The form of Schemes of Work

Schemes of work fall into types according to the character of the subject. Art, crafts and music are subjects demanding skill which develops at different rates in different children. Schemes in these subjects, then, should show the sequence of stages through which children would normally pass. Some children will need to repeat certain steps; others will be able to omit some; but if the stages are set out in the scheme the teacher can quickly assess a child's attainment and ensure progress. In the

¹ Cf. Part II, Section vi a, p. 267.

hands of the children these subjects are creative activities, and the subjects painted, the models made, the songs or tunes composed originate from the children or arise from the occupations and activities in hand; in either case they cannot be entered into a scheme. The works of recognized masters in these Fine Arts, however, set aesthetic standards which are essentially part of the curriculum. Remembering that width of experience is essential in all Primary School work, then, schemes for these subjects should consist of three parts — the materials to be used, the stages through which children might be expected to pass and the methods to be used to introduce the children to great works of art.

Schemes in history and geography, too, seem to fall into three parts,¹ — a broad human section, (biographical in approach in history and studied through the peoples of the world in geography), a section on Adventures, (explorations, discoveries, inventions) and local studies.

In the 3 R's the stages of development are useful, with indications of the methods to be used in the performance of a particular operation in arithmetic and in the approach to acquiring skill in reading and writing. Learning to read is a continuous process from the first introduction to picture books in the nursery to the ability to read anything at the secondary stage. This process covers, at any rate, the three Primary phases and children entering the Primary School at seven years of age may be at any point along the route. It is clear, therefore, that the scheme should show stages and methods² for the whole process of learning to read and that these stages and methods should be common to both Infant and Junior Schools. It is not possible in a scheme to indicate the books to which this skill is applied since they will depend on the topics being studied but there should be some reference to the literature, both poetry and prose, by which standards of English language may be measured.

¹ Cf. p. 196.

² 'Method' here means the technical approach and not method of presentation.

Learning to write is also a continuous process and, like reading, consists of two parallel elements — the skill and the application of the skill. As in reading the stages of development and the methods of approach in learning the skill should be agreed upon by different school departments and in the Primary School the scheme should indicate the whole process so that a child entering the school is able to continue learning the skill from the point he left off in the Infant department. If writing skill is looked upon in this way, as a continuous process, questions such as when cursive writing should be introduced and when children should begin to use ink do not arise. Cursive writing is merely a development of a simple form of calligraphy which may be script, if associated with reading, or may be 'writing patterns' if associated with art. In neither case need there be any break in the process and from either approach children are able to develop their own individual style. Similarly the use of ink is one step in gaining writing skill and can be indicated in the scheme at the appropriate point.

Skill in arithmetic is perhaps more dependent on careful grading than skill in either reading or writing, and activity work is apt to leave gaps in the sequence of development. Special lessons are needed to fill in these gaps whether due to the free method or to the absence of children. The different rates at which children work, their different degrees of ability and their different reactions to subjects are more evident in arithmetic than in any other subject. The scheme therefore should consist of the stages through which each child should progress.

Schemes, then, should be simpler than in the past, stating broadly the minimum ground to be covered in relation to the function which each particular subject fulfils in the education of children and indicating stages of development in acquiring skills. Such schemes ensure the building up of an organized body of knowledge on sound foundations while at the same time allowing free development of any activity the children may wish to pursue.

TIME-TABLES

The Use of Time-Tables

The attitude towards time-tables is also undergoing a change. Those educationists who advocate no schemes of work are also suggesting no time-tables; but even if this were educationally sound, which is doubtful, it is quite impracticable in a school. There are certain activities which must be fixed owing to the physical limitations of school buildings, such as, for example, only one hall which has to be shared by several classes. Routine jobs, too, have to be performed for administrative convenience at a certain time, or within certain time limits, throughout the school, for example, the distribution of milk. It may be said that administrative convenience should not override educational considerations; but it is surely sound education for children to learn that there is such a thing as administrative convenience. Moreover, children need the security and steady influence of an ordered community life¹ and the freedom they need for self-expression and the development of individuality must be combined with the restrictions inherent in any social setting. Time, too, has to be allotted to practice in the tool subjects and gaining skill in technical operations. It is evident, therefore, that a time-table of some kind is necessary. But the time-table which is divided up into periods of half an hour, say, each allotted to a particular lesson is as contrary to the activity approach to Primary School work as is the detailed scheme. The time-table, like the scheme, is an instrument to be used to further the education of the children and not a force that controls it.

Time-Table Analysis

The most useful part of the time-table for the teacher is the analysis of the time spent on different aspects of the work. *When* the work is done depends largely on the course of events in the classroom, but it is important that each aspect should

¹ See Part II, Section IV, pp. 208-232.

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have its fair share of time. It is usual for the analysis of the time-table to be given under subjects but in a school working on activity lines the six broad classes of activities into which the work of the Primary School falls are more suitable headings.

Below is the analysis of the time-table of a class of ten-year-old children in a school which, although formal in approach, does not ignore the broad aspects of education.

<i>Subjects</i>	<i>Minutes per week</i>
Religious Instruction	200
English	575
Arithmetic	275
Nature Study	60
History	60
Geography	60
Music	55
Handwork	60
Physical Training	130
Recreation	125
Registration	50
	1650

In a less formal school in which education is centred on the children rather than on knowledge and the analysis is based on the broad classes of activities rather than on individual subjects the distribution of time seems to work out as follows:

<i>Group</i>	<i>Minutes per week</i>
Physical activities	225 plus meals
Environment activities	200
Constructive activities	200
Creative activities	200
Imaginative activities	225
Tool subjects	400
Break, Bank, Registration, etc.	200
	1650

This analysis shows the relative time that should be given to different aspects of school work. There is, of course, no need to

keep strictly to it each week but over a period of, say, a term the time given to these broad groups of activities should work out roughly in these proportions.

In practice, of course, these groups combine together in any occupation and a piece of work which belongs primarily to, say, the imaginative activities may be equally valuable as an outlet for creative expression. It is not practicable therefore for them to appear under these headings in the body of the time-table. To do so would create artificial distinctions between the groups and restrict the free development of the work.

The Main Time-Table

The main time-table can be very simple. Certain events must be fixed, for example, when the hall is available, break and the periods required for practising the 3 R's. In recent years there has been a great increase in extras such as bank, milk, dinner tickets, etc. If these *must* come into the actual school hours then they, too, should have a fixed period on the time-table.¹ The same period can be used for arranging flowers and for preparing books and classroom for the day's work; by some such arrangement as this the children learn to look upon these routine tasks as part of the business of the day, and the teacher does not feel that she is using up valuable time which should be given over to lessons. When these periods have been fixed the rest of the time can be occupied with individual, group and class activities. It may happen that in the course of these activities the need for music, dancing or drama may emerge. If the hall is not available at that moment it will be necessary to postpone that particular piece of work until the hall can be used. It is more useful, therefore, that the period fixed for the use of the hall should be labelled 'Hall' rather than 'Physical Training' or 'Singing' so that it can be used for any activity that may be appropriate at the moment rather than a specific purpose that may not fit in with the work in hand. The time-table

¹ Cf. pp. 179, 180.

then becomes a daily programme, not necessarily the same each day, indicating the nature of the children's activities rather than their substance. A time-table drawn up on these lines is given below:¹

9. 0	Registration — Preparation for the day
	Milk and dinner money
	News time
	Scripture
10. 0	Practice period
10.45	Lunch — Free play
11. 0	Teacher's time or Group and individual work
	Physical training
12. 0	Midday break
1.30	Registration — Discussion
	Art and craft
	Teacher's time
2.45	Break — Free play
3. 0	Free activities — Group and individual work
	Music
	Teacher's time

The change from the rigid to the free time-table is coming slowly. It started some years ago with the breakdown of subject barriers. At the beginning of the century, for example, *geography* was divided into 'map geography' and 'physical geography' treated as separate subjects, to-day they form part of the general subject of geography; arithmetic is still divided into 'arithmetic', 'mental arithmetic' and 'practical arithmetic'; the sub-divisions of English are only gradually disappearing as 'English' takes the place on the time-table of 'writing', 'oral composition', 'recitation' and all the other aspects of the wider subject. Many schools are breaking away from the rigid time-table of a few years ago; some are following free programmes such as are described by Miss Catty,² but there is still a long way to go before real freedom is the usual practice in Primary schools.

¹ See also, Part II, Section v c, p. 255.

² N. CATTY. *Learning and Teaching in the Junior School*, pp. 34-35.

CLASSIFICATION FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION

CLASSIFICATION for Secondary education, the fourth function of the Primary School, is concerned with the results of education rather than its processes. It is achieved by the assessment and interpretation of each child's response to the whole school environment — methods, curriculum and setting — leading to the classification of children in terms of probable future development.

Methods of testing and assessment have varied from time to time according to the outlook on education. During the old 'payment by results' period emphasis was placed on the ability of the teacher and the standard reached by the children in the 3 R's was taken as a measure of this ability. The establishment of the Scholarship System led to the competitive examination at 11+ with the emphasis on a child's attainment. In more recent years emphasis has shifted from attainment to a child's innate ability and with the change have come attempts to measure general intelligence and specific aptitudes rather than actual knowledge. The Act of 1944 has brought with it the need for yet another change. The problem of selecting a few children for one form of Secondary education has to give way to the much more difficult task of classifying all children for different types of Secondary education, and for the next few years this problem will provide an important field of research for those interested in the Primary School phase.

The problem consists of two parts — the types of Secondary education that children of fifteen and sixteen need and the method by which children of ten or eleven can be allocated to these types. One type is clearly the Grammar School type, probably wider than at present but still mainly concerned with academic studies. Other types required are less clearly defined

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and further investigation of the characteristics and needs of boys and girls at fifteen and sixteen is needed before this side of the problem can be solved satisfactorily. Whatever types are finally established the allocation of children to them will depend on ability to predict at ten or eleven what a child will become at the older age.

THE PRESENT SYSTEM

The high general ability and specific verbal ability required for the Grammar School type of education can be detected at the Primary School stage. Selection for this type of education by means of a 'Special Place' examination has been in operation for half a century and as a result of continual modification and experiment the test has become a fairly efficient instrument of selection. The examination consists of papers in English and arithmetic supplemented by intelligence tests which are becoming increasingly used and in some areas, by oral examinations, interviews and school records especially for borderline cases.

Academic Tests

The arithmetic paper generally consists of a mechanical section and a problems section. The English paper varies but it usually includes a comprehension test, a number of questions on English construction and a composition on a subject chosen by the child from a given list. For many years the aim has been to test ability rather than attainment and credit is given for style, comprehension and ideas rather than for amount or accuracy of fact. This makes marking very difficult; careful mark scales and schedules are worked out from sample papers, but however carefully the work is done, in a large authority where several examiners are engaged in marking the same paper, true standardization of marking is impossible.

Investigations both in this country and in America have proved the unreliability of the results of the traditional essay

type of paper.¹ Various attempts to reduce this unreliability have resulted in the 'Objective Examination'. This is constructed in such a way that the answer can be given in one word and the English papers for the Special Place Examination are tending to become more objective in type. Marking is relatively easy and more reliable than in the older type but, though such a paper tests knowledge of subject matter, it fails to assess attainment and progress in ideas, and though it can measure knowledge of English construction and grammar, it fails to assess ability to write consecutive English. The objective test therefore fails to assess what to-day are considered the more important aspects of verbal ability.

Intelligence Tests

The intelligence test is generally used as a corrective to any unreliability of marking in arithmetic and English. A large number of tests have been produced in Europe, America and Great Britain but recent investigations on the effect of social environment on intelligence suggest that these tests measure something that is not purely innate general ability but a product of general ability and environment. Up to date, however, they seem to give the best measure of capacity that has yet been devised.

Real accuracy can only be obtained through individual tests, and even these may not always yield entirely accurate results, but it is almost impossible to use individual tests extensively in school. In the first place they take a long time; secondly, a suitable room is rarely available in school; and thirdly, not many teachers have the necessary training. There are, however, a number of group intelligence tests which can be given to a whole class at one time and which give a sufficiently accurate result for normal school purposes.

The combined results of these tests do afford on the whole a

¹ Hartog,
Rhodes
and Burt } *The Marks of Examiners.*

reliable measure of a child's ability to follow an academic course at the post-primary stage. The examination, however, is looked upon with disfavour and to it are attributed most of the shortcomings of Primary School education to-day, as well as the misfits in Grammar Schools and the failure of highly skilled and intelligent practical children to reach the required standard. The fault is not so much in the examination itself as in the undue importance which for various reasons has come to be attached to Grammar School education. Under the new Act the academic course will be only one of many forms of secondary education and these tests will take their place in a much bigger scheme of classification of all children, through which the present misfits and failures will be allocated to the type of education for which they are best suited. For this purpose all sides of a child's development need to be taken into consideration and attempts are being made to build up a complete picture of each child in the form of a school record.

SCHOOL RECORDS

Records of Attainment

The recording of progress in school subjects, in particular reading and arithmetic, has been in operation for many years in Infants' Schools. Sometimes class lists are sent from one department to another at the end of the school year, indicating the general standard of the children to be transferred. These lists give a basis of classification into A and B categories and comments may be added in the case of a few children who need special treatment. Such lists are often destroyed as soon as they have served their immediate purpose and no systematic record of a child's work and progress is carried forward from one department to the next. They are useful in showing progress and the standard attained in the academic aspects of school life, but they leave unrecorded those other aspects needed for the prediction of future development and they are not in a form which is suitable for individual records.

Individual Record Cards

Some schools issue individual reports. These are generally restricted to the top age group in the school and are compiled for the information of parents. It is a statement of attainment in various subjects, rather than a record of progress in all aspects of school life and although sometimes a remark on behaviour may be slipped in at the end, the report is chiefly an indication of a child's prospects in regard to Grammar School education rather than a picture of him as an individual.

With increasing interest in psychology and the realization that growth in physical fitness and in social and emotional stability is as important as reaching a high standard in academic attainment, Head Teachers have begun to make a systematic study of each child, and record cards showing progress and development in every branch of school life have been drawn up. These cards are rarely passed on to the next department; even if they are, they are not often used after the first term and any record in use is likely to differ from that used in the previous school.

Two examples of such record cards are given on the following pages; one is a card sent up with each child transferred from an Infants' department to a Girls' School, the other is a card used in a Junior School and the striking differences between them illustrate the present difference in approach to children in an Infant School and in a Junior School.

Card 1 is made on an index card six inches by four inches. The front of it has general and family particulars, health, physical, social and temperamental characteristics; the other side has notes on academic attainments and proficiency in specific abilities. It gives a fairly complete picture of a child at the beginning of the first year of the Junior School phase. Only broad classifications into 'good' 'fair' and 'poor' are used and the final estimate is given in terms of A, B, and C. Card 2 the Junior card, is mainly a record of academic work, though a few notes on health, attendance and home conditions are also

included. An assessment scale is used but it is not a true rating scale, though there is an element of grading in the three classes of intelligence which are further sub-divided into 'Industrious' and 'Indifferent'.

The emphasis in this record is on attainment in school subjects, social and temperamental characteristics being omitted.

CARD I

Name of School**Family**

Name of Child Age 20.3.37.

First of two girls

Admit. March 1943

Mother war-

Ny. Cl. 4 **Name of Tr.**

worker Dinners

Inf. Cl. 3 „ „

in Ny. with sister,

„ Cl. I „ „

Norma.

Health *General G. Pneumonia January 1943. Infection*
— Measles. Hair G. Eyes G. Breathing G.
Muscular Control Large G. Fine G.

Behaviour towards:

Adults — rather fussy, should imagine she goes out with her parents a good deal.

Other Children — very agreeable — plays home — shop.

Peculiarities**Talents**

A sound colour sense. Very observant. True singer.

CARD I, REVERSE SIDE

Speech *Defects* nil.

Vocabulary G.

Use of Language. Fluent sentences; likes to talk.

Tool Subjects: *Reading* V.G.

Writing V.G. Penmanship — a good beginning to written work.

Expression Makes good use of drawing and painting.
 Talks well.

CARD 2

Name _____

Father
Mother

[illegible]

If Mother or Father has died, cross off, e.g. Father died

Key to Remarks

- | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|--|---|--|---|---|--|---|
| A | | Above average intelligence and industrious | D | | Of average intelligence but indifferent | " | | Of average intelligence but indifferent |
| B | " | " | E | | Below average " " | " | | " " |
| C | " | " | F | | " " | " | | " " |

Cumulative Records

Such cards as these, however complete they may be, only give a picture of a child at a particular moment and of greater value are those records which show development throughout the whole of a child's school life. This is known as a 'Cumulative Record'. It has a twofold purpose: it is a guide to the teacher in educating the child and a means of classification for secondary education. Its value depends, therefore, not only on the information recorded but also on the interpretation of that information in terms of future promise and present needs. Without this step of interpretation the keeping of a comprehensive record of this kind is largely a waste of time except that the mere setting down of facts fixes the attention of the teacher on each individual child.

It is evident that considerable thought has to be given to the form such a card should take. The information has to be represented clearly and concisely and at the same time there must be freedom from a too rigid classification which does not admit of small individual differences to be indicated. It should be possible to gain a picture of a child by a quick glance at his record, and the general trends of progress should be clear. Particular strength and particular weaknesses should stand out and signs of failure to fulfil promise, or of a check in progress or of maladjustment to environment should be easily discernible.

A number of Local Education Authorities with the help of University departments and teachers have drawn up Cumulative Record Cards to cover different periods of school life. In one area, for example, three cards have been compiled; one for children during their first year in school; a second for the rest of the Infant School period, and the third for the Junior and Senior stages.¹ Another Authority has been experimenting with one record to cover the whole Primary School period from the Nursery to eleven plus; and cards used by other Authorities extend over longer or shorter periods of a child's school life.

¹ PROF. HAMLEY, PROF. OLIVER, DR. FIELD, DR. S. ISAACS. *Educational Guidance of the School Child*.

Besides these attempts the Foundation for Educational Research has been engaged in compiling a card which is now being tried out in different parts of the country for the seven to eleven age groups of a Primary School.

Whatever the form of the card and the methods of assessment they all include seven main classes of information, namely, General, Home Circumstances, Physical Fitness, Ability, Attainments, Interests, and Personal Qualities.

GENERAL SECTION. The general section includes some form of identification number; this is often the admission number with or without the initials of the child. Some cards show the name of the child, but in view of the confidential nature of records of this kind it is perhaps safer to omit this and use only an identification number. Sex is generally included in this section on those cards which do not give the name of the child. Age is given as the 'Date of Birth' or 'Age on a given date'. The latter is useful if the date selected is the same as that used for transfer from one department to another, since children can be classified with the minimum of calculation into their respective age groups.

Attendance is generally shown as a fraction, that is, the actual over the possible attendances; some districts, however, are experimenting with attendance graphs, which show at a glance not only the general level of attendance, but also the nature of the absences; such a graph shows, for example, whether a child's absences form long consecutive periods or whether they are the result of an accumulation of odd days; differences of this kind may be very significant in diagnosing causes of backwardness in specific directions or in revealing adverse home circumstances.

The child's class is generally inserted, and space has to be allowed for passage through the school to be shown. Some difficulty arises in making this entry, however, since there is no standard nomenclature for classes. Nothing is gained by giving names such as Class 3, Class 5, etc., since the significance

of these numbers depends on the total number of classes in the school. The difficulty can be got over to a certain extent by giving the number of the child's class in relation to the number of classes in the department. For example, suppose there are five classes in the school and a nine-year-old child (i.e. in his third Primary school year) is in the fourth class (assuming Class 1 to be at the bottom of the school); on the record card his class would be given as $\frac{4}{5}$, that is, the fourth class in a five-class school. The old 'Standard' nomenclature is also unsatisfactory, since the significance of this term has long since disappeared and 'standards' no longer coincide with the classes in a school. On the whole it is doubtful whether information as to a child's class is significant except for identification purposes, as long as there is no unified method of nomenclature. More significant is the average age of the class; this allows a comparison to be made between the child and his class mates in terms of chronological age and gives some indication, therefore, of his ability relative to the class, but the same information is obtained through intelligence tests and it seems probable that information as to the class a child is in might be omitted from the record.

HOME CIRCUMSTANCES. This section generally includes the position of the child in the family, the occupations of the parents and the general character of the home. The position of the child in the home is most easily represented by a fraction; for example, a child who is the youngest in a family of three would be represented by the fraction $\frac{1}{3}$; if he were the oldest the fraction would be $\frac{2}{3}$.

The occupations of the parents and facts concerning home circumstances are sometimes difficult to obtain and yet the adequacy of bedroom accommodation, opportunities for the pursuit of hobbies, the general financial position, whether the child lives with his parents or with his Granny, and, most important of all, the relationship between the child and his parents or guardian and between the child and his brothers

and sisters, may be very significant factors in regard to school progress and general development.

PHYSICAL FITNESS. Graphs showing height and weight give a fairly accurate index of the growth of a child but while height is easy enough to measure and can be done in any school by the children themselves, weight presents certain difficulties. Not all schools have weighing machines and visits to clinics, difficult in towns, are almost impossible in rural areas. The School Medical Officer's remarks are obviously important and the teacher, who has a good working knowledge of the day-to-day health of the children in her class, can often make a very accurate estimate of physical fitness. Attributes such as frail, robust, clumsy, good carriage and so on can also be recorded.

ABILITIES AND APTITUDE. Upon these depends to a large extent the future progress and development of a child; they are therefore attributes which should be recorded and if possible measured. Not many tests are available and recent investigations suggest that specific abilities and aptitudes are not sufficiently pronounced to be measured with accuracy at the Primary School stage and that some do not appear at all until thirteen or fourteen years of age. There are indications in younger children, however, of certain abilities, and various attempts have been made to group them according to their predominating characteristic. The Foundation for Educational Research card, for example, has six groups of abilities — Verbal facility, Reasoning, Speed of work, Observation, Practical ability and Artistic ability. Other cards differentiate between Art and Music and introduce manipulative ability; others include physical skill. It is clear, therefore, that opinions differ and that more investigation is necessary before any exact record of abilities can be obtained.

Where no test is available the teacher has to rely on her own estimate based on the close observation of each individual child in the class. As a guide some attributes are sub-divided into five grades and the teacher has to judge which grade a child

falls into. Reasoning ability for example has been subdivided into:

- A logically accurate, facile with abstract ideas
- B clear reasoner, quick to detect fallacies
- C normal, sometimes needs the help of the concrete
- D weak reasoner, has to rely on the concrete
- E very weak reasoner, often muddled.¹

If no sub-divisions are available the teacher has to estimate in terms of a five-point scale — A, B, C, D, E — drawing upon her whole experience in order to form as objective a judgment as possible. An estimate of this kind has inevitably some element of personal bias in it and does not give an exact measure of attainment for purposes of comparison with other children. The grades into which a child falls do, however, produce a picture of his relative ability in different classes of school work and provide a useful indication of the general trend of his development.

The active periods provide the best opportunities for observation. Some children, of course, are outstanding in one direction or another and there is little difficulty of assessment; the real difficulty lies with those children who do not show any marked ability or weakness during the Primary School period. It is these very children, who, just because there is nothing distinctive about them, may so easily find themselves drifting into the wrong type of Secondary education. General ability can be measured by Intelligence tests. Those used for the Special Place Examination are largely verbal and do not give a fair estimate for children whose reading ability is limited perhaps by home circumstances or whose visual and spatial aptitude is strong. Moreover, the result of a single test given perhaps in strange surroundings and under strained competitive conditions may be unreliable. But if both verbal and non-verbal tests are given at intervals throughout the Primary School course a fairly accurate measure of intelligence is obtained by the age of eleven.

¹ Foundation for Educational Research Junior Record Card.

ATTAINMENTS. Although there is a general tendency to emphasize ability rather than attainment, nevertheless, some measure of attainment is necessary partly to gauge the efficiency of teaching methods and partly to check the effort made by the children. Where, for example, a child's school work does not reach the standard that could be expected from his intelligence quotient then either the result of the Intelligence Test is wrong or the child is not putting out his greatest effort. An individual test may have to be given to check the result of the group test and if the result should confirm the original estimate the child can be pressed to greater effort without harm. Objective examinations and standardized Attainment Tests, described by, for example, P. E. Vernon,¹ can be used for this purpose. But tests have not been compiled for all subjects and a complete picture of a child's attainments has to depend to a large extent on the teacher's estimate using the five-point rating scale mentioned earlier.

For purposes of estimation subjects are generally classified; for example history and geography may be grouped as Social Studies, or the various branches of English may be classified into English language and English technique. With the development of activity work and the tendency to group subject matter into categories according to the functions they fulfil and the characteristics of the pupils they satisfy it may be necessary to revise the older methods of classification and to use a grouping such as that into which the curriculum is divided in Chapter IV, namely physical activities, environmental studies, constructive activities, creative activities, imaginative activities and the tool subjects.

INTERESTS. Interests are not easy to determine. If the school environment is free enough and the curriculum wide enough it is possible for a child to discover interests during his school days which may last the rest of his life. But it does not follow that because a child is interested in, say, stamp collecting, when he is

¹ P. E. VERNON. *Measurement of Abilities*.

nine he will be an ardent philatelist when he is twenty-nine. A child's interests and hobbies at this stage may be determined by external influences, for example, by the enthusiasm of a teacher for some particular branch of the work or by limitations of the environment.

Two types of interests, therefore, can be distinguished — superficial ones which change more or less rapidly and are determined largely by external influences, and deep rooted ones, which are more lasting and determined by an urge from within. It is the latter that are of value in predicting future development, and attempts have been made to classify them into categories, such as, social, intellectual, artistic and so on. If some form of classification is used then assessment can be made on a five-point scale as for abilities and attainment. So little is known about children's interests, however, that it is not possible to be sure even that the suggested categories are correct, and until the results of investigations now on foot are known, it will be necessary to rely on a teacher's observation with perhaps a rating of doubtful accuracy and on the child's own statement of his interests for a record of this most important aspect of school life.

PERSONAL QUALITIES. Temperament and personal qualities are also difficult to assess. Some record cards provide a space for jotting down characteristics as they become apparent, leading finally to a concise character sketch. Other cards give a number of personality attributes in contrasting pairs and the teacher has to underline or otherwise indicate those which are outstanding in the child. Examples of such pairs are:

Happy
Considerate
Deliberate

Discontented
Thoughtless
Impulsive

A third method is to divide what appear to be the most important classes of temperamental qualities into five categories

ranging from the positive extreme at one end to the negative or opposite extreme at the other. For example, self-confidence has been divided into the following categories:

- 1 extremely self-confident, inclined to be reckless
- 2 very self-confident, trusts his own powers
- 3 normally confident in familiar circumstances
- 4 confident only when prepared, otherwise timid
- 5 diffident, nervous, lacks confidence.¹

Emotional stability ranges from 'Excitable, highly strung, emotional outbursts, unstable' to 'Emotionally apathetic'.² As in the case of abilities treated in this way, the characteristics of each child are assessed according to the category into which each quality appears to fall. Various other methods have been tried out and the failure of psychologists to reach agreement suggests a lack of detailed and accurate knowledge of the more important aspects of temperament and the resulting difficulty of recording this aspect of a child's development.

Interpretation of the Cumulative Record

Much of the information on a cumulative card, then, is recorded on a scale and each child is represented by a pattern formed by a series of letters. On some cards the scales are so arranged that the pattern is in the form of a graph. This pattern, whether a series of letters or a graph, is the guide both to the educational needs of each child and to the type of secondary education to which he is best fitted.

The record should reveal any weakness, maladjustment or check in progress and any discrepancy between attainment and intelligence. Their causes have to be investigated and steps taken to try and cure them. The record also reveals a child's special attributes and talents which have to be fostered and allowed to grow and develop as fully as possible.

For purposes of classification for Secondary education the

¹ F. J. SCHONELL. *Backwardness in the Basic Subjects*.

² Ibid.

child's pattern has to be interpreted in terms of future development. The most significant section seems to be that concerning abilities, and the weight given to the specific or general factor depends on the Secondary School set-up. It has already been established that verbal ability is essential for success in an academic course but the importance of other groups of specific abilities has yet to be determined. There is no doubt, however, that ability is of primary importance as a basis of classification.

Interests seem equally important. But it is necessary to distinguish between the superficial transitory interests and the more deep-seated lasting ones, as it is only the latter that are significant in relation to Secondary School classification. Attainment seems to be a qualifying factor, dependent on the post-primary set-up and the relative importance of the different categories of subjects.

Probably personality and physical fitness are not basic factors in allocation to schools though they may be significant in doubtful cases and might become primary factors at the end of the Secondary School course in relation to occupations and careers.

The 'general' section of the record has no importance for purposes of classification except as an indication of the age of the child. In this respect it is a qualifying factor. Home circumstances should not affect classification and will not do so unless the financial demands and social standards in one type of school differ from those in another — conditions which would be contrary to the intentions of the Education Act. On the other hand home circumstances may be unfavourable to some forms of Secondary education, for example, there may be no facilities for quiet study; the parents' wishes, too, may not coincide with the educational needs of the child. Under these conditions this factor may outweigh more significant considerations but if close co-operation between parents and school authorities exists these cases should be few in number.

For purposes of classification, then, the data on the record card seems to fall into three categories:

1. *Primary¹ Factors*
 - a Fundamental: Abilities — General and Specific
Interests — Deep-seated and lasting
 - b Qualifying: Age
Attainments
2. *Secondary¹ Factors*

Determining factors for special cases	Physical Fitness Personal Qualities
--	--
3. *Subsidiary Factors*

External factors which might over-ride all educational consider- ations	Home Conditions Parents' Wish.
--	-----------------------------------

The value of cumulative records is dependent on the exactness of the entries and the accuracy of the interpretation. A teacher has to train herself, therefore, to become a keen observer and to get into the habit of jotting down characteristics that may be revealed during the course of the day's work. These notes when collected together form a very complete character study of each child. It is important, too, that entries should be based on independent judgment and observation and that the estimate of one teacher should not be influenced by previous entries. It is only through the independent judgment of different people that personal bias can be eliminated and the whole range of a child's reaction to different situations and different personalities can be recorded.

The task of filling in records is clearly a heavy one, but their value, both as an aid to the education of each child and as a means of predicting fitness for certain types of Secondary education, is so great that every effort should be made to overcome the difficulties involved.

¹ These terms Primary and Secondary have no relation to the same terms applied to schools.

THE TEACHER'S TASK

THE CHANGED EMPHASIS

The Function of the Teacher

RECENTLY a visitor entered a Primary School. She knocked on the door of the Head Master's room and, on hearing a somewhat muffled 'Come in', opened the door and walked in. The sight that met her eyes was unusual. The Head Master was on all fours under the table; two little girls were also crawling about the floor on hands and knees; they were evidently searching for something. The Head Master looked up as the visitor entered. 'Oh, good morning!' he said, 'would you mind waiting just a moment?' and thereupon dived down again. Almost immediately all three cried out 'There it is!' and they emerged from under the table with the lost object. What a different picture from that of a Head Teacher in the 1880s. In the course of time the teacher has become more and more human in his dealings with children and more and more broad in his outlook on education.

In the days of the monitorial system his duty was to supervise. He, himself, was not expected to teach (except in the case of religious knowledge) and he was not expected to have any direct contact with the children — these were the functions of the monitors; the Head Teacher's task was to supervise the monitors. Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth introduced a more humane outlook. His plan was to bring each child into daily contact with the teacher; this developed into class teaching which has been the recognized form of instruction right up to the present day. Some years ago, however, group teaching returned particularly in Infants' Schools, where, in some of its forms, it is reminiscent of the 'drafts' of monitorial days. More

recently still, as methods have developed along the lines described in an earlier chapter, there has been a revival of the supervisory function of the teacher.

Categories of Teachers

Besides this change in function there has been a change in the categories of teachers. In 1882 there were six categories: the Principal Certificated Teacher (that is the Head Teacher), Assistant Certificated, Provisionally Certificated and Supplementary Teachers, Pupil Teachers and Candidates for Pupil Teacherships. The number of teachers in a school was based on a ratio of teachers to children, and the ratio varied with the category of the teacher. In 1882 the basis of calculation was as follows:

<i>Category</i>	<i>Number of Children</i>
Principal Certificated Teacher	60
Assistant Certificated Teacher	80
Provisionally Certificated Teacher	60
Supplementary Teacher	40
Pupil Teacher	40
Candidate for Pupil Teachership	20

In 1890 the ratios were reduced to 60, 70, 50, 30, 30 and 20 respectively and in 1896 to 50, 60, 45, 30, 30 and 20. By 1906 the number of teacher categories had been reduced to four, the pupil teacher and candidate having given way to the student teacher and the provisionally certificated teacher having disappeared altogether. The staffing ratio had also changed, the Head Teacher representing 35 children, assistant certificated teachers still 60, uncertificated teachers 35 and student teachers 20. By 1944 the student teacher had disappeared and uncertificated supplementary teachers were gradually working out of the educational system. Teachers were classified into three categories for purposes of staffing, the ratios being Head

teachers 35, certificated assistant teachers 50, and uncertificated teachers 20. Since the Act of 1944 there has been a further reduction to 40 for certificated teachers and arrangements have been made for the uncertificated class gradually to disappear. Unfortunately the staffing conditions arising through the war have made this reduction quite impossible and the average size of class is greater now than it was in 1938. But apart from the temporary set-backs due to the first and second world wars there has been a steady movement towards smaller classes and the elimination of untrained staff.

THE TEACHER'S DUTIES

The teacher is, of course, the instrument through which the school fulfils its functions, and the success or failure of a school is directly due to its staff.

Duties in Relation to the First Function of the Primary School

For the development of the physical and mental capacities of each child the work of the teacher is direct, practical and centred in the classroom. She has to create an environment in which the children can widen their experiences, try out their skill, follow up lines of interest and exercise every muscle in their bodies and every faculty of their minds. This means making a plan of work which links the curriculum with the characteristics of the children in the class. She has to provide the materials for various occupations and interests, and to allow freedom and time for their use. She must moreover be prepared to alter the plan if it does not seem to fit the requirements of the children, and to add to it or subtract from it if the needs of an individual are not met.

This setting up of the environment is the preparatory work of the teacher. Modifications will be necessary as the work proceeds, but collecting materials together, thinking out possible lines of development, preparing and finding illustrations and

reference books, and studying the whole field of subject matter¹ to be covered during the given period are preliminary tasks without which the work cannot succeed.

The function of the teacher changes when the work has been started. Her role then becomes that of counsellor and advisor, since she has to be ready to give advice when it is sought and to answer any questions the children may ask. Her knowledge, therefore, has to be considerable and wide, not only or even preferably factual, but the sort of knowledge which enables her to tell a child where he will find the answer to his question. She may have to guide, too, the individual child who seems to be missing the opportunities for expression that surround him, or direct the class as a whole if it seems probable that the prescribed ground will not be covered. At the same time she has to review the work both while it is being done and when it is finished.

As an instrument in fulfilling the first function of a Primary School, then, a teacher has a threefold task; she has to prepare the environment before the work is begun, she has to be the advisor and guide while the work is proceeding, and the critic both of the children's work and her own when the course is finished.

Duties in Relation to the Second Function

The second function makes different demands on the teacher. Children will only become useful citizens if they have learned to adjust themselves to other children and to grown-ups when at school. They have to learn, therefore, the meaning of justice; they have to learn to live with other people and to shoulder the responsibilities as well as expect the rights of a member of a community. It is the teacher's task to help the children to gain the stability and balance which adjustment to their environment requires and to find the solution to each child's individual problems whether due to difficulties at home or at school.

¹ Cf. p. 184.

During this process of adjustment clashes of will between child and child and between child and grown-up are inevitable; it is the teacher who has to restore peace and order, and to do it her judgment must be impartial and her justice irproachable.

A teacher has, too, to be the social companion of the children. This is especially important at a meal which is, in fact, one of the most valuable events of the day for this branch of the work of a Primary School. The meal-time setting provides an opportunity for observing a side of a child which often differs widely from that normally prevalent. Moreover, a child's behaviour during this period may give a clue to some trouble that has been evident in the classroom, or may reveal some interest which might have remained hidden but for the freer social atmosphere of the dining-table. The period is useful, too, for direct training in social behaviour and manners. It is important that the children should learn to conform to normal conventional standards of behaviour and this can be done easily and naturally during a meal at school. The introduction of the midday meal into the normal life of the school, therefore, is a valuable addition towards the better education of children.

The after-dinner period tests to a certain extent the success of the training in the classroom. If training has been sound, children should have learnt to use their leisure time well. They should be able to choose their occupations and games sensibly and have learnt to look upon the teacher as the friend to go to for help, advice and co-operation. She must be readily accessible to all, therefore, taking part when invited in the children's activities and safeguarding the freedom of each to pursue his own chosen occupation.

Besides these practical ways of fulfilling the second function of the Primary School, the teacher exerts an influence through her own personality. Her deportment, appearance, manners, behaviour, speech — all present a model which to a greater or less degree will influence every child in the school; a teacher should never forget that the example she sets before the children

has far more effect than any amount of practical, direct training and this example must be genuine and not reserved merely for school hours.

Duties in Relation to the Third Function

It has to be recognized, too, that the direct teaching of reading, writing and arithmetic must fall upon the Primary School teacher; upon her, therefore, lies the duty of giving the children the groundwork of all learning and the tools necessary for living in a community.

Though this is a relatively straightforward task it has to be remembered that children begin to grasp the fundamentals in these subjects at different ages and that they progress at different rates; that some children miss one week's work and others another; that some are persistently absent one day or a half-day every week and others are never absent at all. All these conditions make it impossible to treat the class as whole. Individual attention becomes essential, therefore, and this means careful recording of each child's progress and careful preparation for each individual in the class.

Duties in Relation to the Fourth Function

The work associated with the classification of children for Post-Primary education is, perhaps, the most difficult of all, and because it is less immediately pressing than the work in the classroom, it may easily be neglected. For this side of her work the teacher has to become the scientific investigator and impartial observer. She has to free her mind of personal likes and dislikes, and to assume as objective an attitude towards each child as possible. It is clear that the formal and rigid character of Primary education in the past not only gave the teacher no time to observe the children, since she was occupied all day in imparting knowledge, but did not even provide a setting in which children were sufficiently free to make observation at all worth while. Observation, therefore, the first essential for the

fulfilment of the fourth function of the Primary School, is only possible where there is freedom for the children to express themselves and opportunities for the teacher to be a passive observer rather than an active participant in the work of the classroom, conditions which obtain only when the school is organized on free and active lines.

The Routine Tasks of a Teacher

Besides the work necessary for the fulfilment of the four functions of the Primary School, a teacher has other work. There are routine tasks attendant upon the smooth running of a school as an institution, apart from its function as a place for educating children, such as marking registers, selling dinner tickets, taking bank money and so on. The work can become a real burden and even overshadow the main business of education if allowed to do so. The only way to lighten the burden is to arrange a fixed time for these tasks. If they take half an hour then half an hour should be allotted to them; if longer, then the longer period should be set aside; the essential thing is that these tasks should be done at a time recognized by both children and teachers as given up to this purpose and not incidentally while the morning's educational programme is in operation. It is necessary, however, to ensure that all children are occupied and those in the class who are not occupied in buying dinner tickets or in giving in bank money should have something to do. These occupations should be of the kind that can be picked up and put down again at a moment's notice and with the minimum of fuss. Library books, sums, writing, pieces of handwork — anything will do for this purpose, and the choice made by individual children may be a useful indication of that child's interests.

MILK. Giving out milk presents a special difficulty owing to irregular times for delivery. There are many ways of handling this milk problem. Some schools have a 'bar' and children drink their milk when they have a few minutes to spare; other

schools include the measuring out and paying for milk as part of their scheme in arithmetic; others turn the drinking of milk into a social event and make a break in the morning's work. There are many other ways in which this feature of school life, which has no doubt come to stay, has been turned into a means of educating children. The trouble arises when it is treated as an evil which interferes with school work instead of an essential part of it, helping to build up sound bodies, to train in social behaviour and to teach arithmetic. The provision of milk, therefore, is as much a part of the educational work of the school as is the provision of meals, and when treated as such does not cause the irritation which it does when it is looked upon as a necessary evil in the school of to-day. There are some practical difficulties met with at the present time, however, such as the variable times of arrival and the method of delivery which cannot easily be overcome. These difficulties should disappear as the supply of labour and equipment improves.

MEDICAL INSPECTION. Medical Inspection is another of the interruptions that occur. Again this is an important and necessary part of the school work. It is an advantage if the class teacher as well as the Head Teacher can be present at the examination, since upon her falls the direct responsibility of seeing that the doctor's directions, in so far as they affect activities in school, are carried out. It is helpful, too, both to the Medical Officer and to the teacher, if a child's difficulties in school work can be discussed in case they should be attributable to physical causes.

The closing of schools on Medical Inspection days would have many advantages. The class teacher, free from the responsibilities of classroom work, would be able to look after the children and discuss their physical development with the doctor; there would be time to fill in the medical section of the record cards while the Medical Officer is on the spot, and there would be an opportunity for interviewing parents and talking over the progress of their children, not only in health but in all sides of school life and work.

Interruptions in Classroom Work

There are other interruptions in the form of visitors — officers of the Local Education Authority, officers of the Ministry of Education, visitors from other Authorities or from other countries, students, parents, and so on. Some of these visits are unavoidable, but all too little consideration is given to the effect of these interruptions on the work in the classroom. The time for a teacher to see visitors, unless they have come for the specific purpose of looking at the work going on in the classroom, is at the mid-morning or afternoon break, or before or after a session. The day's programme should be jealously guarded against all unnecessary interruptions; even a visitor looking at the class at work should be prepared to accept the fact that she is the least important person in the room.

The ease with which the day's programme can be put aside has a serious effect on the educational work of the school. Perhaps least serious is its effect on the actual amount of syllabus covered. More serious is its effect on the teacher who, setting out with carefully laid plans and an exciting programme for the day, becomes discouraged if, at frequent intervals, some interruption, probably quite trivial and educationally unimportant, prevents the children from carrying through the work. The teacher who suffers most is the one who has given the most thought to her work and in the end she begins to wonder whether it is worth while preparing at all. Even if she does not go as far as this she tends, quite naturally, to give less thought and time to preparation when she realizes that there is little probability of her plans being carried through without interruption.

But most serious of all is the effect on the children to whom it appears that the day's classroom work can be put aside with ease and with little loss. It is ideas such as these that may result in poor attendance and a lack of appreciation of the importance of the work done in the classroom. The war is partly responsible for an increase in interruptions. Part-time education, air-raid warnings, closing of schools through lack of

fuel and other reasons, have resulted in much loss of school-time, and a precedent, once established, quickly develops into a habit. One way of encouraging a greater belief in the value of education is to reduce these interruptions to a minimum and to treat the day's programme as so important that only the most exceptional circumstances can be allowed to interfere with it.

PROGRESS IN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICE

The Young Teacher

THE FIRST POST. If these problems tax the skill of many experienced teachers, they must appear almost insurmountable to the beginner. During School Practice very few of these teachers have had full charge of a class, but it is very different when the student takes up her first post. She is no longer a student; she has no tutor to help her and if the Head Teacher comes to her rescue in the classroom, her prestige in the eyes of the class is bound to suffer. She will be faced with the same class month after month and if she fails to grip the children at the outset she will have an interminable year of struggle.

The Head Teacher has a great responsibility in helping the young teacher over the first few days. Much depends on the way the newcomer is introduced to the class and the school. She should be introduced as a colleague, as one in the profession who will command the respect and affection of the children just as the other members of the staff do, but at the same time as one who does not know her way about the school and will need the help of the children in finding out where things are kept. The newcomer has her part to play as well. She must create from her first appearance in the school an impression of one who expects to be respected and obeyed, one who is ready to meet the children half-way and who has a sense of justice, humour and responsibility. However doubtful of her own powers, the new teacher must establish this relationship of mutual respect and trust between herself and the children from the outset.

PREPARATION. She cannot do this unless she shows knowledge and an ability to organize the class as she wants. She must, therefore, prepare her work most carefully and thoroughly from the very start. This means not only preparing subject matter, but also planning the whole day's programme, and deciding how she will organize the change from one occupation to the next. It is very helpful, in order to get to know the children, to treat the class as a whole for the first week or two. The time can be spent very profitably in finding out what the children can do in different branches of the work, and when the names of the children have been learnt and the standard of work ascertained real education can begin, and the class grouped for its varied occupations and activities.

INTRODUCING NEW IDEAS. The teacher just out of college has a special function in the school and a duty to education in general. She is the source of new ideas, she is the one who should try out the theories put forward during her training and it is through her that educational practice develops and progresses. She is, therefore, an instrument of progress in education and with the vigour and enthusiasm of one setting out on a career, she is a vital factor in the educational system. Unfortunately many a young teacher, either through lack of encouragement, or through meeting direct hostility to new ideas, or through early difficulties of organization and discipline loses this enthusiasm and never puts into operation the ideas she gained at college. This is a great loss to education and, if it is an obstructive attitude that thwarts experiment, a serious reflection on the educational outlook of older and more experienced teachers. Some Head Teachers go to the other extreme. They give their young recruits a completely free hand, often to the extent of letting them make up their own schemes and time-tables. This practice does not give the young teacher enough security. What she needs during this first year is a mixture of freedom and security; freedom to try out different ideas with the knowledge that she has the support and guidance of the Head Teacher and other members of the staff; and security in the direction that the

school time-table and schemes bring with them. There is another drawback to this practice of allowing a teacher to make up her own schemes; it is the lack of coherence in the work of the school as a whole that must inevitably arise from such a procedure.

The young teacher, too, has another function. She is young enough for the children to feel some sort of affinity with her and the standard she sets is far more likely to be followed than that of an older teacher who, though held in great affection, is too far from the children's age to present more than a standard of behaviour which seems to them quite unattainable.

Keeping Up to Date

But, of course, not all the inspiration nor all the progressive ideas need come from the young teacher just out of college. It is the duty of every teacher to try out new ideas; and it is the duty of every teacher to keep in touch with modern educational theory, to examine every theory and to accept or modify or reject in the light of her own experience. Some teachers accept blindly any new idea that is put forward. They accept a method, for example, and put it into operation without really understanding it or even perhaps believing in what they think it is; to accept every idea blindly is as great a disservice to education as to accept no ideas at all. What is really needed for progress is that ideas should be tried out and accepted or modified or rejected after a fair trial with a perfectly open mind. In any case it is unlikely that any method imposed from an external source can be used in its entirety by anyone but the originator of the idea.

This same critical attitude is necessary towards ideas put forward by Head Teachers to their staffs. Some Head Teachers tend to impose their own ideas on the staff. This is no more sound educationally than imposing ideas on children, and the staff must accept the ideas in part or in whole and make them their own before they can be used effectively in the work of the

school. By adding new, rejecting old, modifying here and there and retaining this or the other an older teacher can keep a nice balance between tradition and progress, can present an old subject in a different form, freshen up her own methods and give greater vitality to the work of the children. It is this steady moulding of the work, combined with the new ideas and fresh outlook of the young enthusiast just out of college that ensures the gradual evolution and progress of educational practice.

TRAINING FOR TEACHING

The question may well be asked whether it is possible to train for work as varied and responsible as this. It is clear that a two-year course, or a three-year, or a ten-year will be inadequate. In fact the only way for a teacher to succeed at all in this work of educating children is to remain a student in outlook throughout her whole teaching career; not a student whose guide is a college tutor, but a student whose guide is the response of the children to her efforts to educate them. But although no training can possibly be really adequate and no teacher can ever completely finish training or can ever cease to learn something new about her work, a definite course of training has its place.

The Elements of Training

There seem to be three elements in this training. The first is a consideration of the aim of education; the second is a study of the material to be subjected to education, man; and the third is an acquaintance with the tools by which the education is to be effected, knowledge. Each of these elements has two parts. The first element seems to consist of a distant aim, namely, the study and formation of a philosophy of education, and an immediate aim, concerned with the function of a particular type of school. The second element consists of a broad study of man in general, body and mind, and a narrower study of a

particular group of children. The third element, knowledge, consists of an acquaintance with a wide body of knowledge covering varied interests and fields of study and the particular knowledge suited to a specific group of people. It is clear that these three elements are closely interrelated and that the particular narrow aspect of each is incorporated in the general wider aspect. It is the narrow aspect of these elements, those relating to the functions of the school, the characteristics of children of seven to eleven and the curriculum, that have been considered in these chapters, but in her training a teacher needs to become acquainted with the wider aspects so that her work in a particular field has direction determined by a distant aim.

These elements extend over a very wide field of study, and it is evident that no training can cover the whole ground. It is necessary, therefore, to select what seem to be the most important and far-reaching aspects. Fundamentally important is an attitude of mind towards education, secondly a width of knowledge and interests, and thirdly an understanding of the basic principles upon which all teaching and education must depend. If students in their training can keep these three aspects clearly before them then the details will fall into place and methods in specific subjects will give little cause for worry.

The Study of Subjects

In the light of the previous discussion on methods and subject matter in Primary School education it is evident that width of knowledge is of fundamental importance and that subjects as such need not play a large part. We are bound to ask ourselves, therefore, whether a study of subjects during training is necessary or desirable. From the vocational angle the answer must be 'No!' But a student's intellectual interests must not be restricted to the immediate needs of her profession. It is an invaluable training and a great stimulus to follow one or two particular lines of interest to a standard far beyond that required for teaching any group of children in school. This is as true for the

teacher of Nursery children as for the teacher of boys and girls of eighteen; to limit training to what will be of use in school is to ignore the wider aspects of the three elements of training.

Training for Testing

The recent development of standardized tests, their increasing importance in school assessment and their probable future place in classification for Secondary education has introduced a new problem in the training of teachers for Primary School work. The giving of tests needs a specialized technique which must be strictly followed if the results are to be valid and reliable. Here, then, is one direction in which there must be specific training. During the short period of training it seems doubtful whether it is advisable to cut across the broad issues mentioned above and give specific and detailed instruction for this one aspect of Primary School work. It is probably sounder to treat methods of testing as a special subject, requiring a special course after a few years' experience in practical teaching, just as it is sounder to take specific courses in any restricted field or subject after the broad principles of education have been tried out for a year or two in the classroom.

From 'Teacher' to 'Educator'

This conception of training is very different from that accepted in the last century. The difference is due to the changed conception of a teacher's function, indicated by the difference in meaning between the words 'teacher' and 'educator'. To-day the function of the teacher has extended beyond the limits of the term 'teacher' and involves all that is indicated by the term 'educator'. Her influence is great, greater than many teachers realize. It is both direct and indirect. It is direct through the conscious effort to help a child to grow up; it is indirect through the impact of the teacher's personality on the children which varies in intensity and form from child to child. The teacher is conscious that she exercises

these influences; she has complete control in the first case, and she can, by a critical attitude towards herself, control to a certain extent the second. But there is a third form of influence which is particularly important because its effect is unknown. It is the unknown influence of words, actions and gestures on individual children. This influence she can never entirely control, because she can never know the exact effect of her words, actions and gestures on each child.

The teacher's task then is difficult, but if the few broad issues are kept in mind the minor details will fall into place. 'Thus the teacher's task is given', says Sir R. Livingstone. 'He must create "the virtue, which is the master of all virtues — wisdom and reason and right conviction, with the passionate longing which attends them"',¹ and if the teacher can fulfil this task, he will make education, both for himself and the children under his care, infinitely worth while.

¹ SIR R. LIVINGSTONE. *Plato and Modern Education*, p. 9.

Part Two

ACTIVITY IN OPERATION

IN the previous chapters we have been considering the meaning of 'Activity' in school and the part it plays in the education of children between seven and eleven. There are many problems to be solved and many difficulties to be overcome. Teachers are faced with large classes, confined space, inadequate equipment and unsuitable furniture, and yet in spite of these difficulties much progress has been made towards a more active approach to education during this phase of a child's school life. In Sections I to VI which follow are described some of the experiments that have been tried out and some of the attempts that are being made to break away from the formal methods of pre-war days

I
ILLUSTRATIONS OF
ACTIVITY IN OPERATION
IN SCHOOLS

PLATE II

SELECTING BOOKS FOR THE LIBRARY

Children, ages ranging from seven to ten, choosing books in a City Book Shop. Note in IIa the book the girl on the right is looking at. It is called *The Runaway Train* and was one of the books finally selected

(pp. 156-160)





PLATE III

USING THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

A class of seven-year-old children using the library during one of the fixed periods. During 'Special Activities' afternoons children of all ages mix in the library

(pp. 160-165, 169-171)

PLATE IV

HOUSEWIFERY

Twenty-two nine- and ten-year-old girls choose to do housewifery during 'Special Activities' afternoons. They have learnt to lay a fire, wash up, polish furniture and do a number of other household jobs. Most of these children have household duties to do at home

(pp. 169-171)





PLATE W

SOUTHAMPTON DOCKS

This model of Southampton Docks is built on a black-board on table-desks. The pictorial map from which it developed and other geographical material hangs on the wall behind. These are nine-year-old children

(pp. 186-188)

PLATE VI

LEARNING ABOUT THE SCHOOL

Nine-year-old boys learning from the Caretaker how their school is heated. This led to a study of coke and coal and then widened to include the materials used in building the school

(Table 10, facing p. 196)



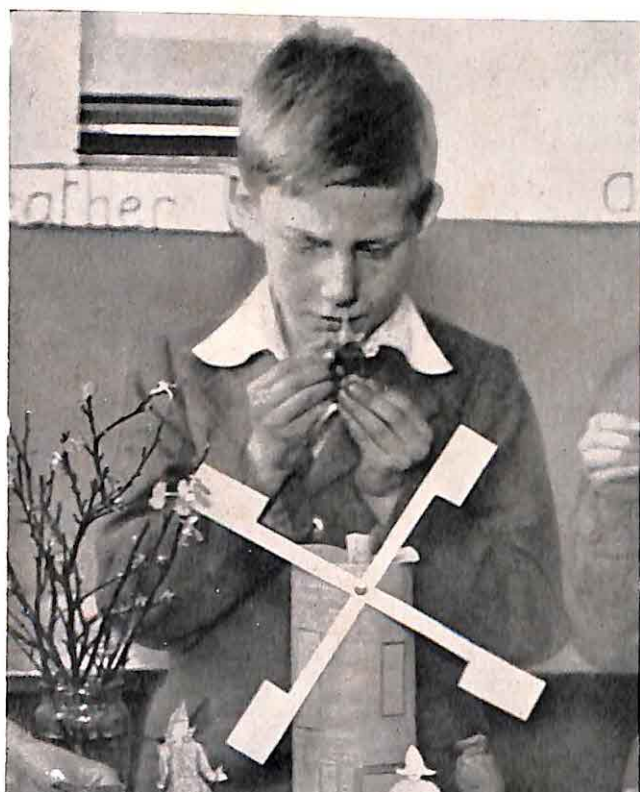


PLATE VII

FREE PERIOD OCCUPATIONS

VIIa. These are seven-year-old children. They tend to prefer Free Activities to co-operative work, though sometimes their activities lead to group or even class topics

VIIb. A boy of eight engrossed in putting the finishing touches to a doll for the model Dutch scene

(pp. 188-189 and Table 10, facing p. 196)

PLATE VIII

GARDENING

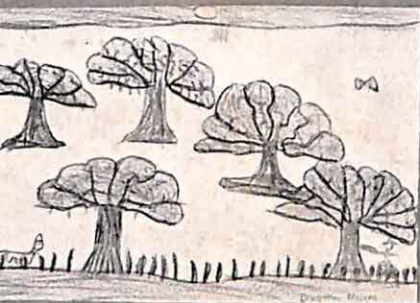
VIIIa. Ten-year-old children cultivating their Garden

(pp. 189-195)

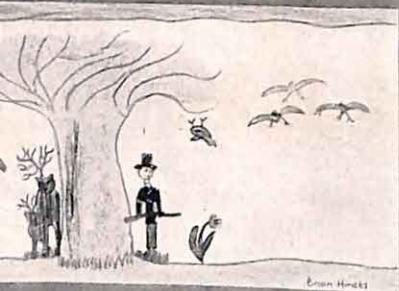
VIIIb. This indoor Rock Garden belongs to a class of nine-year-olds. The creepers, dwarf plants and grass grow well; the tall-flowering shrubs are in vases. The scene behind was painted by a girl in the class to make an appropriate background to the garden

(pp. 180, 195 and Appendix v, p. 298)





Bambi saw a butterfly flying in the sky They were in the meadow and the sun was shining.



He is standing near the great oak tree, and Bambi and The old Stag are on the other side.

PLATE IX

THE STORY OF BAMBI

Two pages from *The Story of Bambi* compiled by a class of children aged seven. Book making is one of their favourite forms of co-operative work, the class having produced two or three such books during the year

(p. 204)

PLATE X

A FURNISHED ROOM FOR A DOLL'S HOUSE

This is the Doll's House furniture made by a little girl of ten one winter evening. The fire is made of used matches, red transparent paper and small cinders. The top front of the book-case desk is coloured to represent the backs of books. The hearth-rug, not visible in the photograph, is made of strips of paper woven together

(pp. 221, 228 and Table 13, p. 228)

Directions
to arrange the room.

Fire - Center back on alid hearth

Rug - In front of fire

Coal scuttle and fire irons - in
hearth.

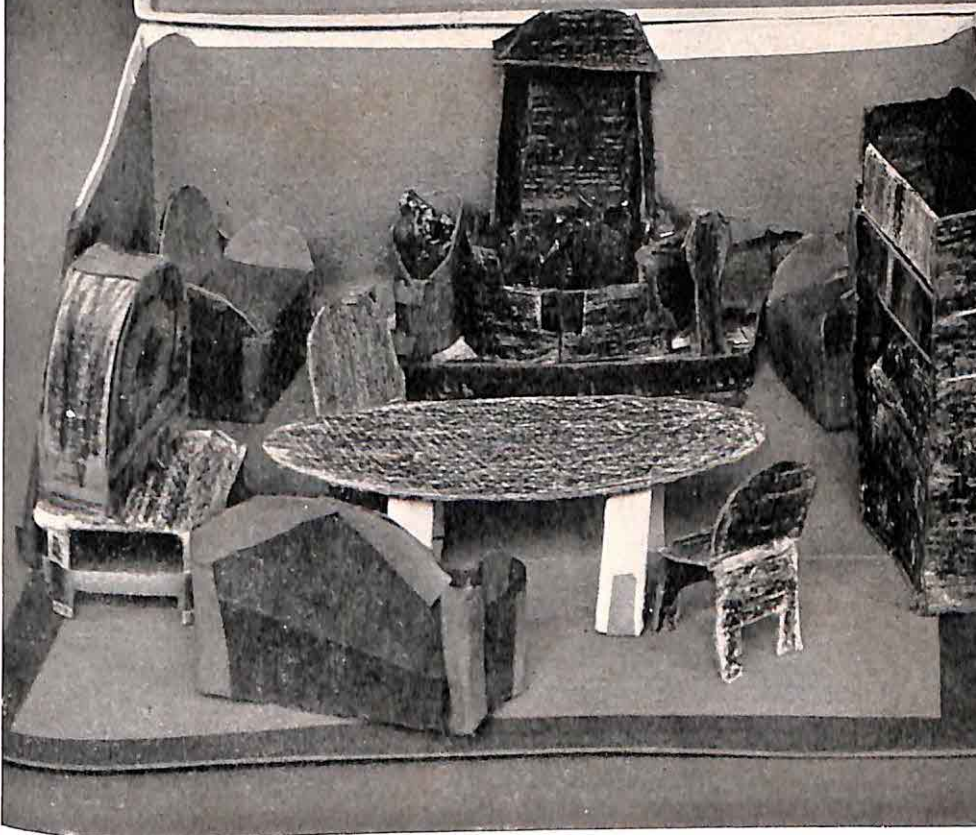
Oval table - Center of room.

Iron Chairs - either side of fire

Settee - facing oval table

Radios on small table on L.

Bookcase desk - on R.



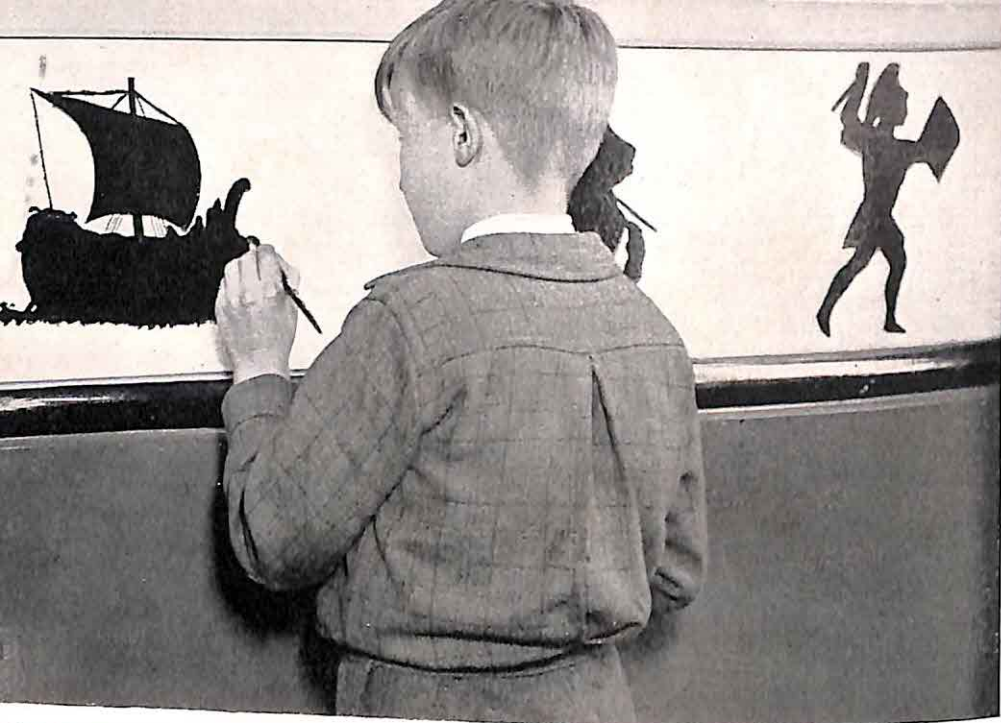


PLATE XI

INTERESTS AND HOBBIES

XIa. This boy spends many afternoons painting on large sheets of paper. He reproduces pictures he has seen but does not have the copy beside him when painting. It is interesting to note that the boy is left-handed

XIb. A group of eight- and nine-year-old children making and playing bamboo pipes.

(pp. 246, *et seq.*)

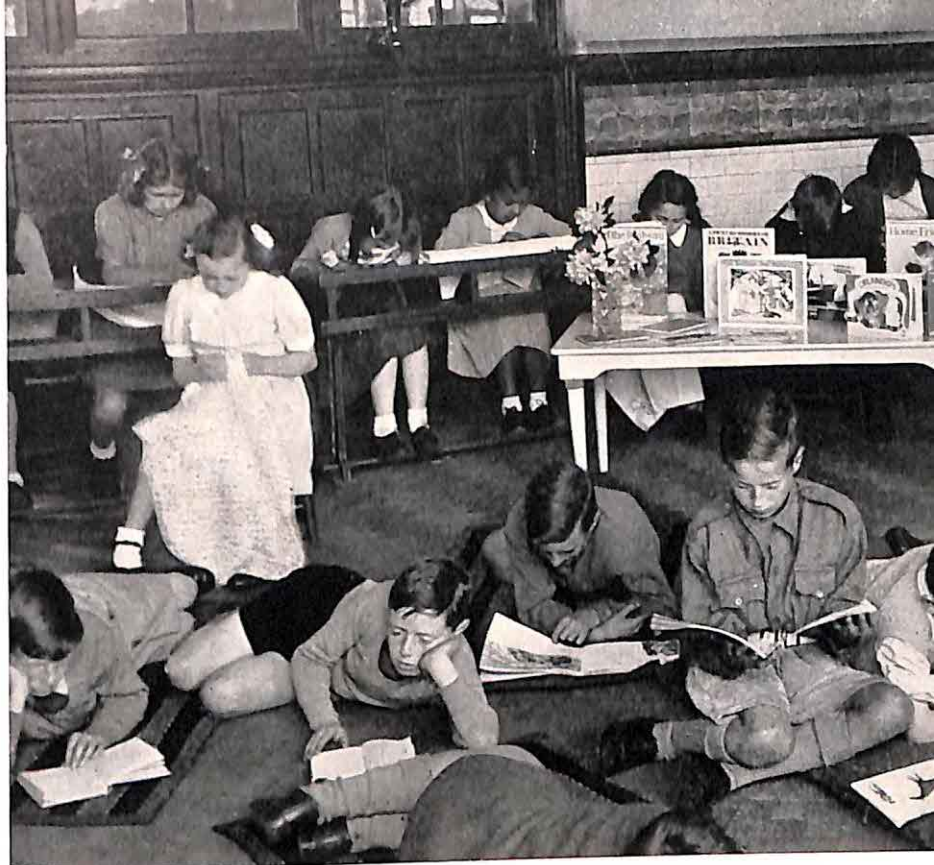
PLATE XII

MAKING USE OF SPACE

XIIa. The Library is not restricted to reading occupations. Mats make a useful substitute for easy chairs and help to create an informal atmosphere

XIIb. Art is a favourite occupation. Some children find the floor the best place, others prefer desks or easels

(pp. 70-73)





One day Pope Gregory was walking through the market place in Rome when he noticed some white slaves. They were different from the other slaves. They were white skinned with fair hair and blue eyes. The Pope said to the merchant where do they come from? From Angle-land replied the merchant. The Pope went up to the boys. They shouldn't be back into their cotton gowns for they thought this man was going to buy them. The Pope said to the merchant these are not angles they are angels. But the merchant shrugged his shoulders.



Augustine and the forty monks sailed in a little boat across the English Channel. They landed in Kent.

PLATE XIII

TWO EPISODES IN THE STORY OF
ST. AUGUSTINE

This is the work of eight- and nine-year-old children

(pp. 256-257)

PLATE XIV

THE STORY OF WRITING

Work done by a class of girls of nine and ten years of age. The work is taken from the books of two children of average ability

(pp. 264-266)

XIV_a Babylonian Cuneiform

XIV_b Egyptian Hieroglyphics

XIV_c English Illumination

Pictures Changing in to Cuneiform Writing

House



Ox



Flower



Girl



Tree



Cal



Boat



the harbour, in a island in the
Spanish Seas,
Are the ting white houses and the
orange trees,



PLATE XV

ELECTIONEERING

XVa. Junior children are instructed by older scholars how to fill in their ballot papers. Blackboards bearing posters and slogans are put up in different parts of the school building and playground (p. 271)

XVb. Junior children voting. In the foreground two small children are receiving their ballot papers. On the extreme right back a boy is in a booth deciding where to put his mark and at the back two children are slipping their papers into the ballot box of their respective houses (p. 273).

(pp. 267-276)

PLATE XVI

SELF-GOVERNMENT

These photographs show some of the functions of the
Captains and Vice-Captains

(pp. 278-285)

XVIa Parliament in Session

XVIb Awarding Prizes

XVIc Addressing the Children



II. A PRACTICAL APPROACH TO THE 3 R's

IN 1943 when the days of the blitz were over and teachers were trying to bring new life into the schools the Head Master of a Junior School became interested in a practical approach to arithmetic. This subject touched very closely the home life of the children in the district, and a link between an active approach to work in school and the environment was established.

The school lies in an industrial area of a city near the junction of two main thoroughfares. These thoroughfares are lined with small shops of every description ranging from a bazaar selling tin pans and meat pies to a branch of Burton's outfitting establishment. Most of these shops are privately owned; many had to close down during the war but are now beginning to re-open. Not many of the children in the school actually come from these houses, but the shops form the meeting ground for most of the population of the district and much local interest centres in the fluctuation of trade. Behind these two thoroughfares lies an area of terrace houses occupied by industrial workers and it is from these homes that most of the children are drawn.

The population in the district had been declining steadily for many years before the second World War but there has been a tendency to increase again recently. This fluctuation has affected the school population and given rise to changes of organization and to a consequent replanning of the curriculum. At present there are just over 260 children in the school, with ages ranging from seven to eleven, organized into six classes. When the active approach to education was introduced on an extensive scale there were only five classes and the change to six has resulted in modifications of the original plan. Besides the normal classes in the school there is a special class for backward children. This is really intended to serve a wide district

but in practice most of the children are drawn from this particular school. The building was erected at the end of the last century. Classrooms are large, there is a fine hall and owing to the fall of school population there are a number of spare rooms, some of which have been taken over by another branch of the educational service while others are available for school purposes. The building has the drawbacks that characterize most schools of this date: for example, no water is laid on in the classrooms, the hall is a thoroughfare on to which all the classrooms open and the glass partitions between the classrooms are far from sound-proof; an added drawback is the noise of the heavy traffic on the main road alongside the school. The large classrooms, however, allow plenty of room for movement even with classes of forty-five to fifty, and one by one all the spare rooms have been turned into centres of learning. Should the number of children increase still more these rooms may have to revert to homes for classes, as has already been the case with one room, and some modification of the existing plan will be necessary.

In this school the active approach is made rather through specific subjects than through general classwork, though the work in the specific subject may involve other subjects and may affect the work in the classroom. At times the whole school may assemble for combined activities; sometimes it regroups according to the occupations individual children may wish to pursue and on these occasions the classrooms become 'subject' rooms like the spare rooms. By this method the conventional classification of knowledge¹ is retained throughout the whole four years.

The use of rooms both as classrooms and as subject rooms imposes certain restrictions on the work. If the rooms should be used all the time as subject rooms there would be constant movement of classes about the school and the time-table would have to be drawn up so that each class has its due proportion of time in each room. This, as we have seen earlier,² hinders the

¹ See pp. 85-86.

² See pp. 70-71.

free development of activity, and the frequent change of classroom is confusing to young children and wastes much time. The practice in this school is to turn the classrooms into subject rooms on one afternoon a week, when the normal class organization is set aside and the whole school regroups into bands of children following pursuits of their own choice.

Rooms not needed for class purposes have been fitted up as 'subject' rooms and can be used as such throughout the week. One spare room was originally turned into an arithmetic room but unfortunately this has had to revert to a classroom owing to the formation of an additional class; another has become a library; and a third the Head Master is planning to fit up as a woodwork room. These rooms are used by each class as a whole and therefore a time-table restriction has had to be imposed but both rooms are available and may be used by individual children or small groups of children at other than the periods allotted to particular classes.

THE SCHOOL SHOPPING CENTRE

Setting up the Shop

The idea of a practical arithmetic room in the form of a School Shop was first of all put to the staff. All were willing to experiment though some felt that, with classes up to forty-eight the organization would be extremely difficult. About six staff meetings were held to discuss the best approach and finally the suggestion was put before the children. The first procedure was to discuss with the children what sort of shops should be made. The older pupils chose a Grocer's Shop and the younger ones a Toy Shop, and a Post Office was added to link up with other activities in the school. Having decided on the types of shops the children then proceeded to collect together the necessary equipment. All the children were drawn in and the work of the school revolved round the business of fitting up the shops.

THE TOY SHOP. The toy shop consisted of a cupboard for storage and a table for the counter. All sorts of toys were loaned by the children but in a district of this kind the number available was small. The stock was supplemented, therefore, by toys made in school. Wooden toys were made in a special woodwork class which was set on foot for the older boys, and soft toys were made by the older girls. The woodwork has had to be dropped for the time being as the room has been turned into a dining-room, but the making of soft toys is still carried on and arouses great interest in spite of the fact that the shop which was the original incentive is no longer in existence.

THE GROCER'S SHOP. The setting up of the grocer's shop brought in the close co-operation of the shopkeepers of the district. To judge by the stock collected the children must have talked to all their friends and visited all the shops in the neighbourhood to enlist their help. The largest cupboard was used for storing all the goods and a table made a suitable counter. Two weighing machines were in the school but there were not enough weights. The parents put this right by filing down bits of metal into the correct weights. One set of weights and scales was used in the grocer's shop and the other set was used at a special weighing table. The shop itself had a vast assortment of cartons, packets, bottles and jars, tins and other commodities. Sand, sawdust and pebbles were used as sugar, sweets, etc., and the money consisted of both cardboard coins, paper notes and real money, including defaced pennies, half-pennies, threepenny bits and sixpences.

THE POST OFFICE was made out of a Head Teacher's damaged desk to which a corded grill made by the children was attached. This had the necessary openings and the whole made a very satisfactory counter. Stamps were made by perforating sheets of paper on a sewing machine, an operation performed by parents. The sheets were then printed by the children with

potato and india-rubber cuts. Folders to hold the stamps were made during craft lessons as well as the notices that are usually found at post-office counters. The pillar box was made out of a large cardboard box.

Using the Shop

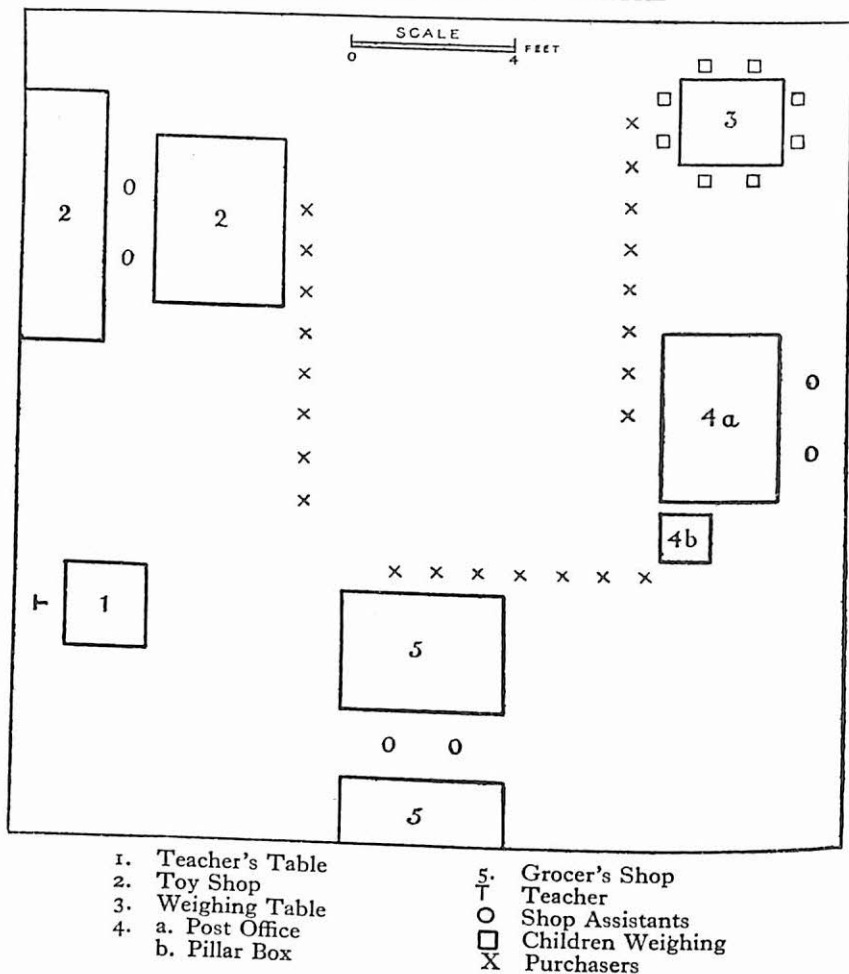
The fitting up of this room as a shopping centre was a real piece of constructive work, related to the children's experience and home environment, providing opportunities for displaying powers of imagination and ingenuity and for the development of manipulative skill. But its value did not rest there; all the work that had already been done was not an end in itself; it was the necessary preliminary to the real goal which was the practical application of arithmetic. Educationally, however, the fitting up of the shops had as much value for the children as the subsequent use of them.

About a fortnight after the scheme had been set on foot enough stock had been collected to make the shops usable. Each class had a fixed time allotted to it for 'going shopping' and the procedure was planned with great care in order to ensure that the maximum practical experience was gained in the restricted time allowed. At first, half the class went to the shopping room while the rest remained in the classroom. This was not found to be very satisfactory and it was arranged that the whole class should go, the children visiting each shop in turn. This, too, was found to waste much time and finally the plan shown on the next page was devised and proved so successful that it was used until the shops had to close down.

The class was divided into four groups before beginning its shopping expedition. One group consisted of six children who were to practice weighing by weighing out goods for the grocery shop. The other three groups were approximately of equal size and stationed themselves at the three shops as shown in the diagram. As each child entered the shopping centre, the teacher at her table issued to him or her a silver coin or a note

DIAGRAM I

PLAN OF SCHOOL SHOPPING CENTRE



with which to make purchases, the value of the coin depending on the ability of the individual child. At the end of the expedition purchases and change (if any) were handed to the teacher. Those children whose results were correct were given more

money on the next occasion. The shop assistants went to their places a few minutes before the shoppers arrived to count out their small change, generally to the value of £1 at each counter. Their job was, of course, to give change to the purchasers and when everyone had had a turn they had to check their takings. It was found advisable to have a boy or girl from one of the upper classes at each counter to assist and check the results of the younger shop assistants when the lower classes were at work.

The Arithmetic and the Functions of the School¹

The first phase of this work provided activity related to environment, and the second phase, that of using the shops, provided experience and opportunities for experiment. Art craft, geography, writing, and arithmetic all played a large part; manipulative ability and orderliness of mind were given opportunities for expression in setting out the shops ready for the day's work and in tidying up afterwards; the whole occupation, therefore, satisfied many of the mental needs of children at the Primary School stage. The combined effort of all the classes towards fitting up the shops, the queueing up at the counters to take turns at buying and the help given by the older children to the younger shop assistants were practical ways of learning to live in a community. The application of arithmetic to the everyday task of buying and selling combined with the practice in the classroom to gain skill and speed, laid a sound foundation for the computation required in the daily life of everyone and in the occupations of many. The work, therefore, had a wide educational value contributing towards the fulfilment of the first three functions of a Primary School discussed in Chapter II. It combined the three elements essential to educational practice with young children, namely, activity, experience and experiment. It lacked, perhaps, free development by being largely directed by the teacher and by being restricted to fixed periods during the week. But it is necessary

¹ See pp. 46-47.

to proceed cautiously at the beginning of a new venture and progress in arithmetic would have been slower and the teachers far more harassed had the scheme been less controlled.

Results

After the scheme had been running for a few weeks the staff were called together and their comments invited. All agreed that progress had been good and that the ordinary class arithmetic had benefited; they agreed, too, that half an hour was hardly long enough for a class of 45 to 50 children to make the round of the shops because the slower children took a long time to make each purchase. These difficulties would no doubt have been solved if the scheme could have been carried on longer. Even during the eighteen months that the room was in use the improvement in arithmetic all through the school was remarkable. Speed and accuracy increased and keen interest was roused which has persisted even though the shopping centre is no longer functioning, and the Head Master attributes the high average of seven out of ten in mental shopping sums, compared with the previous five out of ten, at the lower end of the school, to the practical experience gained in the school shop. The method is carried on now in each classroom but it has necessarily lost some of the excitement, and the variety of arithmetical experience is, of course, more restricted.

THE SCHOOL LIBRARY

Equipping the Library

While the practical arithmetic room was being brought into operation, another empty classroom was being converted into a school library. The room had been in use for some time as a reading room but the number of books was very small and the only storage space was in cupboards. The Head Master managed to obtain some wood and shelves were fixed round the room.

The next problem was to fill the shelves. Children, staff and

parents were again drawn into the scheme. Books were brought from home both by children and teachers but the number was necessarily small and there was a great lack of modern short stories for older children and picture books for the younger ones. The requisition allowance was not sufficient to permit the purchase of many library books so some other way of raising money had to be found. It was then that the Head Master heard that a preserve manufacturer in the locality was offering money for jam jars. The firm was prepared to pay 9d. per dozen for 1lb. jars and a shilling a dozen for 2lb. jars; a drive for 10,000 jars was organized at once and in about nine months children and parents have collected a total of over 6,000.¹

The real educational work during this phase was the selection of books, an activity which recurs even though the first stage of setting up the library is past. From time to time the children who have collected the greatest number of jars in each class go into the city to buy the books.² Since the children are drawn from each class the whole age range is represented and books suitable for each age are selected. The children are given complete freedom to look at the books on the shelves and stalls; they ask the shop assistants for any help, for example, the price of a book that appeals to them or whether a particular book is available or where certain types of books are to be found. A few children may flit about from shelf to shelf without really examining the books but in general the children select carefully, judging not only by the appearance but by the content as well. The teachers give guidance and help, drawing the children's attention to items like suitability of subject matter, print, price and so on. When a book has been chosen, the child takes it to the Head Master for approval. A few questions are asked to make sure that the child knows what kind of a book he is selecting and then the final decision is made. Sometimes a child will carry a book round with him and ask time after time

¹ The number has now risen to well over the 10,000 target.

² Plate II *a* and *b*, facing p. 134.

that it should be added to the purchases and the look of pleasure that comes over his face when at last consent is given indicates the real interest in books that the visit arouses. This practical approach to literature stimulates reading throughout the school and the children are beginning to turn to books as their chief source of information and as an enjoyable hobby. Not the least exciting part of the expedition is the wrapping up of the books into two or three parcels and there is considerable rivalry as to who shall carry them back to school. The visit is rounded off by a cup of tea at a café before the return journey.

An analysis of the children's choices would be a very interesting study yielding valuable information both for teachers and publishers. The children certainly show marked preferences; on one visit, for example, two girls from the top class searched in vain for schoolgirl stories and when they could not find any they wandered rather aimlessly round the shop and made no contribution to the list of purchases at all. Many children are interested in travel stories and technical books for adults — books which are much too difficult for children under eleven and nature books come in for much attention especially when well illustrated.

Before the first expedition to town the teachers discussed with the children the type of books they would like to have in the library, and their answers fell into eight main classes. These, in order of preference were:

- | | |
|---------------------|------------------|
| 1 Adventure stories | 5 Annuals |
| 2 Bible stories | 6 Books of plays |
| 3 Nature stories | 7 Picture books |
| 4 Animal stories | 8 Anthologies |

After each expedition the new books are classified into these types, displayed for a time on tables in the library as 'new additions' and then put into dust covers, labelled with coloured bands according to the class of book and placed on the appropriate shelves. This is the list of books selected on the most recent visit.

LIBRARY CATALOGUE

NEW ADDITIONS

*February 1946*Group 1. *Adventure Stories*

- a *Senior*¹ The Book of Simon
 The Franklin Mystery
 The Hero of the Afghan Frontier
 Let's be gay
 Peter Pan in Kensington Gardens
 Peter, Great Czar of Russia
 Pirates
- b *Junior*² The Children's Sinbad
 Fairyland Story Book [2 copies]
 Harlequinade
 In the Land of the Mimsies
 Lucy Maroon
 The Runaway Train
 Big, Little, Smaller, Least
 Coo-my-Doo
 Dinah, Jim and Mac
 Greedy Peter
 Jimmy Jumbo's Exciting Day
 Wimpy on Holiday.

Group 3 *Nature*

The Tale of a Tadpole

Group 4 *Animals*Barbara, a Black Sheep
Fuzzypeg, the Hedgehog

Grey Rabbit Books:

The Great Adventures of Hare
How Little Grey Rabbit got back her Tail
Squirrel, Hare and Little Grey Rabbit
Squire Rabbit¹ Senior = the older children 9-11.² Junior = the younger children 7-9.

Group 7 *Picture Books and Junior Special*

The Adventure of Polly Peppermint
 Alphabet Rhymes
 A. I. Number Book
 Belinda Strip Pictures
 Drummer Boy Duckling
 The Bumper Book of Trains
 The Funny Bunnies
 Jim and Mary's Dressing-up Party
 Jim and Mary's Garden Party
 Jim and Mary's Swimming Party
 Jim and Mary's Tea Party
 Larry Lop-Ear

Group 8 *Anthologies*

Family Rhymes. Illustrated
 Man in the Moon
 Nursery Rhymes
 Men of Britain — History Rhymes

Using the Library

For the first few weeks the library was organized on the usual card method, the children acting as librarians. The system operated quite well, but experience showed that valuable time was lost in the issue and exchange of books and a different scheme was devised.

Under the new plan each child keeps in a little notebook his own record of books read. The name of the book and a simple remark describing how the child liked it are recorded by the younger children, the older ones including also the date, the author and the number of pages read. These note books present an interesting picture of a child's progress. One boy, for example, in the top age group started by dipping into a number of books — he would try as many as four in half an hour — but six months later he was spending the whole period in the library reading only one book and even continuing the same book the following week.¹ During the six months this

¹ See Table 2, p. 162.

child had read either in whole or in part twenty-five books. A girl in the bottom age group read 19 books in the same length of time; the difference in the amount this child read compared with that of the older boy is greater, of course, than the difference in number of books suggests, but it is a very good record for a child of only seven years of age. Differences of choice emerge, too, half the younger child's selections were animal stories while only four of the books read by the ten-year-old child belonged to this category; and a third of the boy's books were tales of adventure in contrast to the complete lack of such books in the younger child's list. The scale of assessment of the interest of the books gives more detailed information on the likes and dislikes of the children. The older boy uses adjectives such as 'funny', 'exciting', 'excellent' and his assessment scale ranges from 'fair' through 'good' and degrees of 'good', the best books being described as 'very, very, very good'. The younger child's scale is less precise and is based on the word 'nice' ranging through three grades only 'nice', 'very nice' and 'very, very nice'. The adjectives 'good' and 'excellent' also occur, making altogether six different ratings as compared with the ten used by the boy. It is from records of this kind that the abilities, characteristics and interests of children can be obtained for entry into the record card.¹

Two lists taken from children's note-books with their comments are given in Tables 2 and 3 on pages 162 and 163.

Each class is allotted a definite period² of half an hour a week, but children are able to use the room at other times, and during the free afternoon described below large numbers of children choose to read in the library. During the fixed period the children are given freedom to choose their own books, the coloured labels helping them to find the type of books they want with the minimum loss of time. Those children who wander round rather aimlessly are encouraged and guided by the teacher in charge of the group. They all show a keen interest in the new additions and will spend some time looking

¹pp. 104 *et seq.*

² Plate III, facing p. 135.

TABLE 2

I. A BOY'S CHOICE (AGE 10+)

<i>Date</i>	<i>Name of Story</i>	<i>Author</i>	<i>Pages Read</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
13. 9.45	Wang and Other Stories	M. A. Peart	3-22	Very very good
13. 9.45	Paths in Storyland	S. Mead	1-40	Good
13. 9.45	A Ride with Robin Hood	H. Strang	3-22	Very exciting
13. 9.45	The Sorcerer's Apprentice	C. Rostron	1-15	Very funny
20. 9.45	The Heroes	C. Kingsley	1-20	Very exciting
20. 9.45	The Wild Life of the World	R. Ogle	1-20	Excellent
20. 9.45	The Men of Britain	J. Kaberry	1-20	Very good
21. 9.45	Animal Stories	R. Kipling	1-20	Very good
28. 9.45	Peter, Paul and Percy	T. Field	1-20	Very funny
28. 9.45	Budge and Betty	T. Field	1-23	Very good
28. 9.45	An Enchanted Voyage	T. Field	1-24	Very good
5.10.45	Robin of Pliny House	F. Waterhouse	1-55	} Very good
12.10.45	" " "		55-89	
12.10.45	Heroes of Greece		1-24	Very very good
16.10.45	Stories from Africa	Various	1-42	Very exciting
16.11.45	Captain Starlight	P. Westerman	9-15	Very exciting (not finished)
23.11.45	Jack and the Beanstalk	Not given	3-23	Very good
23.11.45	Shintail's Friends	May Chell	1-50	Very good
30.11.45	Shintail's Triplets	May Chell	1-80	Very good
7.12.45	Illustrated London News		1-15	Very good
14.12.45	The Ocean Princess		1-45	Fair
11. 1.46	The Boy's Book		1-344	Very very good
18. 1.46	Kiddybus	A. Perry	1-42	Very good
25. 1.46	A Ring and a Riddle		7-33	Very good
1. 2.46	Speed and other stories	Various	1-71	Very good
8. 2.46	A Hero of the Afghan Frontier	A. M. Pemmell	1-50	Full of adventure
10. 2.46	" " "	"	50-148	Full of interest

TABLE 3

II. A GIRL'S CHOICE (AGE 7+)

<i>Name of Story</i>	<i>Remarks</i>
Ameliaranne and the Green Umbrella	Very nice
Robert the Rabbit	Very nice
Puss in Boots	Very very nice
Bunky the Bear Cub	Very nice
Teddy and his Good Idea	Nice
The Picnic	Nice
Polly goes to School	Nice
The Little Black Pig	Very nice
Slippery Sam	Nice
A Ride with Robin	Very very nice
A Bible Story	Very good
Little Plop Ear	Very good
Aladdin	Good
Hats for Sale	Nice
Down Willow Way	Excellent
The Brownie's Magic	Good
The Friendly Robin	Excellent
The Little Hidden Spell	Excellent
Betty and the Lamb's Tails	Very good

at them. At the end of the period all books have to be returned to the shelves (and in this, too, the coloured labels are a great help) and records made in note-books.

Besides being used for pleasure reading, the room is also used as a Reference Library. Children are allowed to go there at any time to look up something needed in another lesson, to find out how to make some model or where a commodity comes from, and for this purpose there are books of reference on history, geography and natural history and an encyclopaedia. The room is also used during the after dinner period when the weather is unfit for the children to play outside. Plans are now

being made for a considerable extension of the use of the room, for example, small groups of children engaged in the study of different topics will collect much of their information by reference to the books in the library. Meanwhile, the drive for jam jars goes on.

The Library in Relation to the Functions of the School

Like the fitting up of the arithmetic room, this piece of work has drawn in the whole school and has been directed towards a purely educational occupation. It has involved less physical and manipulative activity but its value in relation to the social training of the children is great, particularly in setting a standard of taste and behaviour. Through the process of selecting their own books with the guidance and help of the teachers, the children are learning to appreciate good print, good pictures, pleasing bindings and fitness of subject matter for a particular purpose. They are therefore learning to discriminate and even if the standards they judge by are different from those of the cultured adult, the fact that the children are learning to look for certain qualities in the books they select is itself a highly important step towards developing a critical attitude of mind. It will be interesting to see the choice of books made by the children who are at present in the lowest age group when they reach the top of the school after four years' experience of this kind.

As in the case of the school shop, the fitting up of the room is only the step towards other aspects of education. The most immediate of these is an increased interest in reading; that the work is achieving this is shown by the eagerness with which the children make use of the library. A wider educational aim is the setting of standards, not only in the appreciation of good literature and book production gained through the selection and assessment of books either at the book shop or in the library, but also in social behaviour¹ gained through contact

¹See Chapter IV, pp. 79-82.

with the lives of great men and women met with as the range of reading widens. Another important aspect of the work is the training for leisure by establishing a habit of reading and by introducing children to the use of libraries and to the enjoyment that can be got through reading. The social experience, too, of the journey to town, the visits to booksellers and the cup of tea at a café is educationally important and gives practical training in behaviour. Not least important is the stimulation of imagination and the widening of vocabulary leading to increased facility in the use of language derived from the constant reference to books. This work then is particularly important in relation to the second and third functions of the Primary School.

It is interesting that these two activities, the school shops and the library, are connected with the two subjects which have been responsible for so much anxiety on the part of teachers and so much tribulation on the part of children, showing that far from restricting the work of the school as they did during the first quarter of the century, arithmetic and reading can be the most widely educational subjects of the curriculum.

WRITING ACTIVITIES

CORRESPONDENCE. The third of the 3 Rs, writing, is also approached from a practical angle. Letter writing has become a common practice in many schools and in this case inter-class letter writing became associated with the post office in the arithmetic room. When one of the staff left to go to another school an inter-school correspondence developed and this has expanded now to international intercourse. On January 10th, 1945, the first letters were posted to Malta; these were written by the boys and girls of the top classes to children of corresponding ages in the schools of Malta. Much has been learned of the life of the children at school and of their interests and hobbies as well as of the character of the island and the occupations of the people. Views of Malta, pieces of Maltese lace and

samples or descriptions of other local products and industries rouse great interest amongst the children, who send in return views of various parts of their own city. The information given in these letters is collected under headings, for example — Size of families, Pets, School Life, Weather, Occupations, Sports and Pastimes, Fruit and Vegetables, Important Towns, the People, Interesting Facts. This is the starting-point of much geography teaching, leading to a comparison with our own country as each topic is discussed.

The whole scheme has provided an incentive to good writing and composition and many of the letters from the Maltese children set a standard of calligraphy and English construction which our own children try to reach. To the Maltese, English is a foreign language and the accuracy of grammar and good style attained by these children suggests that a second language could be learnt by many more English children and at a much earlier age than is generally supposed.

This foreign correspondence has now spread to many parts of the world. Contacts have been made with the Falkland Islands, British Guiana, Canada and most recently of all with Australia, twenty letters being posted to that country on February 28th, 1946, just over a year after the first batch of letters was dispatched to Malta. The children are now trying to get into touch with children of India and Africa so as to complete the links with their 'House' countries.¹

Other Activities Associated with English

SPELLING BEES. Other activities are designed to help writing, such as Spelling Bees, Brains Trusts and Merry-Go-Round Quiz. All these are associated with words and verbal expression. Spelling bees take the form of inter-house competitions. The words to be spelled are written on slips of paper, classified, and put into different boxes according to their class. The boxes might be labelled School, Home, Animals, Sport, etc., and each

¹This has now been achieved. See p. 171.

team selects its own subject box. This is obviously not only a means of learning to spell, but also widens the children's vocabulary and helps to organize their knowledge.¹

THE BRAINS TRUST. The Brains Trust brings in the mechanics of writing as well as practice in the construction of concise sentences. The children send their written questions to the Head Master who acts as Question Master. There are three resident members, one boy and two girls, and three guests, who may be other children in the school or pupils from Senior, Central and High Schools and even students from the University. Questions are sent in from all classes and range from astronomical subjects to topical problems. Here are some examples of questions sent in by children of different ages:

- 7+ Girl The sun and moon both look to be the same size. Which is the bigger?
- 8+ Girl Will the members of the Brains Trust say what they want to do when they leave school and why?
- 8+ Boy Why is my mother named Alice?
- 9+ Boy Which is the most popular game in the playground during the year for (a) boys (b) girls?
- 10+ Girl Is it good to have rations, or would it be better not to have them at all?
- Special }
Class Boy } What causes day and night?
- 8, 9, 10 }
year olds } Will the Brains Trust say which is their favourite pet and tell us of its habits?
- Several }
10 year } Could each member of the Brains Trust give us
olds } the title of a book which he or she consider
 } should be in our school library?

THE MERRY-GO-ROUND QUIZ. The Merry-Go-Round Quiz gives training in oral and written expression as do the Brains Trusts. The questions are sent in by the children and centre

¹ Cf. p. 86.

round eight different subjects, for example, 'films', 'school', 'songs', 'scripture', 'the locality' and so on. The procedure is similar to that followed in Radio 'Quiz' programmes, and House marks are given for correct answers. These questions were asked recently on an 'animals' topic and on 'films'.

Animals

- 1 What animal is covered with prickles?
- 2 Give the name of any animal that moves without legs?
- 3 Imitate the noises of the following animals: cock, lamb, dog, duck.
- 4 What is an animal's doctor called?

Films

- 1 Give the names of the stars in the film 'The Barretts of Wimpole Street'. [This film has been shown in the locality recently.]
- 2 There are many pairs of comedians on the films. Who are the partners of
 - a Abbott?
 - b Flanagan?
 - c Laurel?
 - d Scott?
- 3 Complete the following film titles
 - a White Cliffs
 - b Give Me
 - c Going
 - d A Song to
- 4 Name three stars whose Christian name is Charles.

These three activities, Spelling Bees, Brains Trusts and Merry-Go-Round Quiz, are held regularly in rotation on the last period of Friday afternoon. They attract great interest and provide an incentive to written and oral English which is not to be found in the formal writing and composition lessons.

SPECIAL ACTIVITIES AFTERNOON

Another break away from the formal approach is the introduction of what is called 'Special Activities Afternoon'. The afternoon is divided into two periods of an hour each, separated by a ten-minute interval. Six different types of occupations are planned for the first period and seven for the second, but as some of these are duplicated there are eight different activities to choose from altogether. The children select two occupations each, one from the first period group and one from the second period. To ensure continuity and progress the children are encouraged to keep to the selected occupations for the whole term although they are allowed to change if the number of children in the group they wish to join is sufficiently small to admit new members. The whole school, including the Special Backward Class, joins in the general post so that any group of children may cover the whole age and intelligence range of the school. If a large number of children choose one particular activity then more than one group is formed. In this school, for example, ninety-two children chose 'Drama' and therefore arrangements are made for two drama groups in the first period and one in the second.

Table 4 on page 170 shows the distribution of children in the different occupations.

The occupations are arranged in order of preference as indicated by the number of children choosing each occupation. Each child has two choices so that the figures in the bottom row equal half the sum of the figures in the columns.

How significant these figures are as indicating children's preferences at different ages during the Primary School course can only be judged by similar records covering a period of years; some interesting points seem to emerge however. Drama, for example, which is generally a favourite occupation, is at the bottom of the list both in the special class choices and in those of class 4 which is made up of the less intellectual children of the third year; Community singing appears to be in greater

favour amongst the younger children than the older; the library seems to attract particularly the second year children. (Is this perhaps because these children are just beginning to feel at ease with reading?) It is clearly dangerous to generalize on this one table but the results are suggestive and further investigations along similar lines might yield information of great value to educational practices in Primary Schools.

TABLE 4

<i>Occupation</i>	<i>No. of Children per Class</i>							<i>Total no. of Children</i>
	6 4th yr	5 3rd & 4th yr	4 3rd yr	3 2nd yr	2 1st & 2nd yr	1 1st yr	Miss X's class	
Drama	16	14	8	18	21	14	1	92
Library	11	12	10	19	18	10	4	84
Art	13	12	12	11	11	14	9	82
Games	9	9	9	12	11	15	11	76
Community								
Singing	4	6	10	10	12	14	6	62
Handwork	8	7	17	12	7	9	2	62
Dancing	16	17	10	—	—	—	5	48
Housewifery	11	9	2	—	—	—	—	22
No of children per class	44	43	39	41	40	38	19	264

The drama groups are treated as units, each group being engaged in producing a play; community singing, and dancing, are also activities for the whole group but in the other occupations the group is sub-divided and works either as individuals or as smaller groups. In the library each child has his own book; in art each child is allowed to choose the sort of work he would like to do and the medium he would like to use; in the games room the children work in groups at quiet table games such as snakes and ladders and dominoes. The room is still being fitted up. Few games can be brought from home; some have already been made by the children and plans are on foot for a development of this work. Handwork is also carried on in groups. It

was during this period that the toys for the arithmetic room were made and the interest aroused still persists in spite of the closing of the shopping centre. Modelling, weaving and drawing are other occupations followed by the children in the hand-work group. The housewifery activities is restricted to girls in the three top classes. The children divide into small groups and disperse to different rooms such as the staff-room or a classroom to pursue their various household tasks.¹

SOCIAL TRAINING

The social training is largely associated with the school community efforts, such as the fitting up of the arithmetic room and library already described. The other activities, too, in which the class organization gives way to a grouping that covers a wide age range, produces a social set up which approaches that of the community. School plays involving sixty to eighty children, drawn from all classes, also bring together children of different ages and intelligence. But the most important factor in social training is the Empire House System. There are four houses: Africa, India, Australia and Canada. House meetings are held every Friday afternoon; inter-house matches are played; correspondence has begun with Canada and Australia and efforts are being made to make contacts with India and Africa.² But perhaps the most interesting feature of the house system is that the children collect in their respective houses for assembly instead of in classes and they sit in houses for the midday meal. This house system, together with the journeys to town for the purchase of books and to schools on the outskirts of the city, with their green fields, for inter-school matches, with the correspondence with children of other lands and stories of the lives of great men and women of all lands and all ages, and with the activities drawing in the whole school, gives a width of social experience that should form a sound foundation for life in a community.

¹ Plate IV *a, b, c*, facing p. 136.

² See note, p. 166.

This school then has progressed some way towards fulfilling the first three functions of a Primary School. There are difficulties and handicaps, such as lack of equipment and unsuitable furniture, but these are not allowed to stand in the way of experiment and progress towards a more active approach to education. There is still a long way to go, especially towards freedom for the exercise of the children's initiative and opportunities for creative self-expression; but much has been achieved, especially in social training and in bringing purpose and activity into the 3 R's.

As for the fourth function, the school is engaged in trying out a record card but the experiment is only in its early stages and it is unlikely that any reliable results will be available for some time. It is clear, however, that the children's lists of books read in the library and the details of choices made on the special activities afternoon provide useful information for record cards, and the conditions under which the children work during these activities give the teacher opportunities for the necessary observation of individual children if the card is to be successful.

III. FOUR YEARS OF EXPERIMENT IN 'FREEDOM' METHODS

THE activity work in another school has developed in two stages — a pre-war period and a post-evacuation period.

THE PRE-WAR PERIOD

The Origin

The pre-war period was an experimental one which had its origin some ten years ago in a 'Home' activity worked out with a class of very backward 12-14-year-old girls. The class teacher was given a free hand to try out her own ideas. Formal time-tables and schemes of work were discarded; the class was divided into six teams of eight girls, each team forming its own 'Home' plan, and responsible for the working out and completion of the particular plan. This brought great satisfaction to every member of the class and developed in them a poise and self-confidence which stood them in good stead in the posts they went to after leaving school.

One outstanding example was the case of a girl who had been one of the poorest in the school; she had been particularly weak in arithmetic. Being sensitive to criticism, she had developed a sense of 'inferiority' and had become one of the special class. About a year later the class teacher went into an umbrella shop where to her surprise she found this girl attending to a customer. She watched from the shadow and noted with satisfaction the quiet confidence and pleasing manner with which the girl conducted the whole transaction. The girl explained, 'When I left school I went to the umbrella factory to work. A few weeks ago the lady in charge of this shop fell ill and the manager asked me if I would like to try it'. The confidence and sense of responsibility she had gained during her last year at school in the free atmosphere of the 'backward'

class had evidently been sufficient to fit her at the age of sixteen for taking sole charge of the shop except during the busiest period of the evening.

A Group Experiment

This episode and the general gain in confidence and purposefulness of all members of the class remained in the teacher's mind, and when, later, she became the Head Mistress of a Junior School she seized the opportunity of experimenting with freer methods. It was not, of course, as easy in a school where work is bound up with the traditional scholarship examination as in a class of 'over-elevens' where there is freedom from competitive tests, but the attempt was made to break away from the formality and rigidity of the Primary School course.

THE SCHOOL. The school is a large Primary department covering the four years seven to eleven. It is housed in a building erected in 1928 as a Senior School; the classrooms, therefore, are designed for classes of forty senior children and are not very large. The original handicraft room is used as a classroom but the Domestic Science room is still occupied by pupils attached to the newly built Senior School. This does not allow enough room for all the Junior classes, one of which has to be accommodated in the adjoining building. Not only are there no spare rooms, therefore, but each class being round the fifty-mark is cramped in its own room, making actual teaching conditions very difficult. The school is pleasantly situated, however, with public grounds at one end and a clay pit at the other and the site includes a big grass playing field and wide playground.

The school lies between two main thoroughfares leading to and from the centre of the city, bordered by small rather poor terrace houses. Between these two limits lies a middle class residential area and not far away is a fair ground. Near the school is an estate consisting of small houses occupied by artisan

families who have removed from very poor parts of the city. The school population, therefore, is drawn from very varied districts and includes gipsy children as well as those from relatively wealthy homes. The first problem the Head Mistress tackled, therefore, was a social one.

ORGANIZATION. The school was organized at the time on a three-stream basis and it was felt that the B and C streams were isolated from the A stream and that some scheme of mixing the classes would benefit not only the B and C children but the A children as well.

After a staff discussion it was decided to form four groups to meet on two afternoons a week, the lower half of the school dividing up on one afternoon and the upper half on the other; the groups were to be engaged in art, folk dancing, dramatization and hobbies. Each child chose which group he or she wished to join and where there was overcrowding a small number of children had to interchange groups after a few weeks.

THE VALUE OF THIS GROUP ACTIVITY. The greatest value in this work lay in the social contacts that were made. In the hobbies group, for example, children from the wealthier homes shared their expensive toys, such as Meccano and building sets, with children from poorer homes, and in all groups a friendly, social atmosphere developed which began to pervade the school at all times.

A second great value lay in the confidence the mixing of intellects gave to the children in the B and C streams. This was achieved mainly in the Art groups where not infrequently it happened that a child weak in the formal 3 R's lessons produced work quite as good as that of the children in the A classes and received the spontaneous approbation of his fellow workers of all grades of ability.

A third value was the standard put in front of the poorer children through the example of the better ones. This was particularly noticeable in dramatization and folk dancing

where the effect of mixing was to raise the general level of speech and poise.

Much knowledge about individual children was gained during these group periods but the difficulty of large numbers was very great especially during teachers' absences. After three years the scheme was dropped and before further experiments could be set on foot the children were borne off to safer homes in the country.

THE POST-EVACUATION PERIOD

By the summer of 1942 the school was once more functioning in its own building but conditions were very different from those of 1939. The break up of home life, the weeks of no schooling and the sleepless nights in shelters had left their mark on the children. It was found not only impossible to pick up the threads where they were broken off in 1939 but that the original three-stream system no longer satisfied the needs of the children. The Head Mistress decided that nothing short of a new interest created by an altogether fresh start on different lines would stimulate teachers and children. The Head Mistress recalled the success of her early experiments in 'project' work with backward Senior girls and in 'subject' groups with Junior children and decided to break away from the more formal set schemes of work previously in operation, and substitute 'Freedom in the Classroom' methods throughout the school.

A number of staff meetings were held to discuss the suggestion and to assess the difficulties that would have to be faced in the form of size of classes, lack of accommodation and equipment, class organization and so on; but the realization that the slower children presented a serious difficulty and that war conditions had created entirely new problems led to a unanimous decision to give the scheme a trial for at least three years.

There have, of course, been modifications of the original plan but for four years freedom has been the principle underlying

the work in every classroom in the school. That the experiment has been fully justified is borne out by the standard of work being produced now by children of all ages compared with that of pre-war years. Not only is the standard of work better but the whole outlook of the children towards their work has changed¹ and their gain in poise, self-confidence and social and emotional adjustment has been remarkable.

The first few months were treated as a trial period. During this time two forms of activity work were organized — 'Free Activities' and 'Projects'. The former consisted of various forms of school work or hobbies that the children liked to pursue individually; the latter was co-operative work centering on some topic. A simple time-table was put into operation in which free activities and project work were planned for morning sessions and at the end of the period the scheme was again discussed and modifications made.

The Approach

As a result of these discussions a definite plan was put into operation and certain lines of approach determined. The two forms of activity, the collective type leading to project work and the individual type in the children's free time, were both to be retained, although during the trial period it was found that the two often merged.² During the free activity periods the children were to be given complete freedom of choice. Many children spent the whole of their free time walking round the class, spoiling other children's occupations, knocking down bricks, emptying paint jars and scribbling on other children's drawings. This may have been due partly to lack of suitable accommodation and equipment but another cause was no doubt the lack of training in independence and purposeful activity at that time in the Infant department. Now the Infant school is working on Free Activity lines and children who enter the Primary department show much greater readiness to settle

¹ See pp. 205-207.

² See pp. 195-196.

down to a job of work and much greater ability to keep themselves well occupied.

To overcome this first difficulty the class teacher gave guidance from time to time as the need arose by throwing out suggestions to individual children without setting a definite task. For example, she might say, 'Could you make a little model for our Safety First model?' or, 'I should like some more pictures for our Story Book', thus giving direction to a child's activity while leaving the details to his own initiative. The need for this guidance has almost disappeared; partly owing to the training given in the Infant department and partly to the tradition being built up in the Junior school, the majority of children quickly become absorbed in their various activities and the few difficult children soon follow their example.

The 'project' work was also initiated by the teacher during the early stages of the experiment. The teacher chose a topic in which she herself was interested and in which she had reason to expect her class to be interested. This had the advantage in the experimental stages of providing a nucleus for the term's work and of solving the problem of having 'nothing to work on' — a difficulty that is often met with by teachers first embarking on this method of approach. This 'teacher's project', like the teacher's guidance during the free activity periods, has been largely discarded.

The Time-Table

It was felt from the first that some kind of time-table would be both helpful and necessary. To begin with the two types of activities — the free activities and the 'projects' — were allocated to morning sessions but later two afternoon sessions were given up to the work. Moreover, since the occupations carried on by many children in their free time were connected with the co-operative work of the class the two forms of activities were merged on the time-table and the period set aside for this work was used for whichever type of occupation fitted in best.

After three years of constant modification and revision very simple time-tables are now in operation such as those given below:

TABLE 5

Class I	9.0	10.15	10.25	12.0	1.30	2.45	3.0
Monday	Quiet Activities (Bank, Milk, etc.)		English Arithmetic		English Music		English
Tuesday	Service Scripture		Arithmetic Singing		Free Activities		Physical Tr. English
Wednesday	Free Activities		Arithmetic English		English Dancing		English
Thursday	Service Scripture		Free Activities		Arithmetic English		English
Friday	Tests		Physical Tr. English		Free Activities		English

Class IV

Monday	Quiet Activities		Arithmetic English		N'wk (g) Gard. (b)		English
Tuesday	Scripture P.T.		Arithmetic S.W.		F.A. or P.		Art
Wednesday	Service English		Arithmetic Singing		Music P.T.		F.A. or P.
Thursday	Arithmetic		S.W.		F.A. or P.		P.T. English
Friday	Service Scripture		Tests		F.A.		Games (b) Dancing (g)

F.A. = Free Activities. P. = Project work.
S.W. = Syllabus work (History or Geography).

It will be noticed that there is no set history, geography or nature study. History and geography arise in connection with project work¹ or free activities during which current events

¹ See Table 6, facing p. 188, and Table 12, facing p. 198.

often find a place. In the time-table for the older children two periods a week are reserved for this work as greater detail and a more systematic study of these subjects is needed than is possible with the younger children. The incidental discussion of the subjects during the free activity periods is sufficient for the seven-year-olds.

Nature study also arises in connection with the activity work and is supplemented in most classrooms by nature tables, indoor gardens¹ and weather-charts which provide material for diaries and conversation. Most children contribute something to the nature tables or gardens from time to time and new specimens are taken round the school for the interest of others. This forms a valuable link between the classes and there is much interchange of information and widening of interest through visits into one another's classrooms.

All through the school the basic subjects English and arithmetic are given definite periods on the time-table though both loom large in free activity periods. Physical training, music and scripture are also allocated set periods. Needlework is fixed for the older children mainly because two classes combine, the girls taking needlework and the boys gardening, but the work in both needlework and gardening is generally linked up with the topic under discussion, and may appear at other times during the week. It has become a favourite occupation amongst seven-year-old children, for example, during their free periods.²

It will be noticed that the first period on Monday morning is given over to quiet activities during which the children carry on their own work while the teacher deals with the bank, milk and dinner tickets and other clerical duties.³ The hall is small for the size of school and assemblies have to be held on alternate days for the lower and upper classes — hence, the distribution of services on the two time-tables.

The time-table is regarded as a useful instrument for furthering

¹ Plate VIII *b*, facing p. 140, Appendix v A, p. 298.

² Plate I. Frontispiece.

³ See p. 95.

the education of the children. It is, therefore, very 'elastic'. Subjects and activities may merge into one another, or a piece of work may continue beyond the scheduled time; or again it may be found necessary to tackle a particular weakness in a basic subject and to use one of the free periods for this purpose. This use of the time-table throws on to the class teacher much greater responsibility and gives her the opportunity of using her own initiative in the light of the needs of the children. At first the teachers were afraid to use their new freedom but after three years they have gained more confidence and do not hesitate to use the time-table as a tool, changing over lessons where necessary to make good use of the weather for gardening, for example, or to seize the right moment for a geography or history lesson or for practice in a rule in arithmetic.

EXAMPLES OF WORK

Over a period of three and a half years the amount of ground covered and number of topics studied is, of course, very great and only samples of the kind of work done can be given here.

Projects or Topics

These have taken various forms. In the early stages of the experiment they were largely directed by the teacher but after the first launching of the idea the original plan tended to be modified in the light of the children's response. Some topics still follow a more or less pre-arranged plan such as, for example, gardening which must inevitably follow the normal course of the seasons — others have been developed entirely by the children and in most studies and topics both children and teachers pool their ideas and produce a lively and spontaneous piece of work.

THE VILLAGE OF MERRYMOUNT IN THE MIDDLE AGES. This topic was one of the early efforts. It was taken with a class of nine- to

ten-year-old children, about half boys and half girls. The subject lasted from September to March.

The main bias was, of course, historical, but the subject lent itself admirably to dramatic work, written English, handwork, practical arithmetic and art. The children collected their information from class books, pictures, reference books, encyclopaedias, books brought from home, obtained from the Library or even bought.

The work centred round three main activities:

- A Class model of the village of Merrymount.
- B Fair in the Middle Ages.
- C A Middle Ages History Scrap Book.

The class model was begun after the children had been introduced to life in the Middle Ages and the Manorial System. The model was based on a drawing of the Manor of Merrydown by Eileen Power reconstructed from contemporary manuscripts, but the children preferred to call themselves the 'Villeins of Merrymount', after the name of their school. The model was large, taking up all one side of the classroom. The children drew and painted the background — the Royal forest, east, north and west fields, the high road, the river, the village green and so on. Castles of the period were studied and the boys made and painted a large castle with moat and drawbridge to stand outside the village. Two boys brought model forts so that they could find out how to make a drawbridge.

Each child then became a 'villager' and chose a suitable name, for example Rose the Villein, Walter Woodman. They then made cardboard models of their homes, coloured them and placed them in the village. One boy made at home without any help a wooden model of a battering-ram for the castle. Another boy borrowed a large class illustration of the village church and an old chalk box and returned the next day with an exact model of the church.

Later the children divided the fields into strips and put their

names on their own strips in each of the three fields. Bridges and boats were made for the river; the children lent their toy animals, haystacks, etc., to put on the fields and made others from plasticine. Some of the girls made stocks and stalls for the village market-place.

When the village was complete the children invited their friends in other classes by letter to visit Merrymount and hear about their life there.

The fair at Merrymount developed naturally from discussions of village life. The children read about the fairs in various books and the entertainment given by tumblers, jugglers and minstrels and the goods sold by the travelling merchants. The children wanted to 'act' this and finally a play was developed, the children producing their own clothes and making up the words.¹ Every child had a part to play and invitations were sent out to every class in the school.

The third big activity round which the work centred was a Middle Ages Note Book. Each child made a large album in which he stuck pictures or notes or compositions. A page was given to each particular topic such as:

William, the Norman
 The Manor in the Middle Ages
 The People of the Middle Ages
 Travellers in the Middle Ages
 Crusaders
 Monks and Friars
 England, Scotland, Wales and France
 Kings of the Middle Ages

The pictures were traced or copied and coloured or cut out of history books or other papers. Some of them were drawn by the teacher and the children selected and coloured those that fitted in with their particular piece of work.

By the end of February interest in the village of Merrymount had waned and the 'villagers' wanted to travel farther afield. Travelling out of the village brought them into touch with

¹ See Appendix v B, p. 298.

Robin Hood and the rest of the year was occupied with the adventures of this famous outlaw and his Merry Men.

It might have been expected that such an historical topic was too remote from the children's experience to attract interest. This did not prove to be the case, however, probably through the happy idea of each child identifying himself with an inhabitant of Merrymount and re-enacting the ancient village life. A comparison of the original plan and its actual working out is an interesting example of the need for a careful study of the whole subject¹ and of how the plan may have to be modified as the topic unfolds.

Suggested Plan²

Actual Working Out

I SOCIAL LIFE	I General introduction to the topic. How William I came to England. Hereward the Wake. The Bayeux Tapestry.
a I William and the Normans (1)	2 Norman Castles—Forts—Drawbridges—Battering Rams.
2 Domesday Book (7)	3 Norman Knights—Dress of the Normans—the Lady of the Manor—Villagers—a village in the Middle Ages.
3 Normans and English united	4 The Village of Merrymount—the Children become the villeins of Merrymount.
b I The Manor—the manorial system (3, 5, 7)	5 The Fields, Farms and Churches.
2 The Lords and villeins (3, 4, 6)	6 The Village Fair. The Lord of the Manor. Jugglers, Tumblers, Monks, Dancers, Minstrels, Merchants.
c I The people of the Middle Ages (6)	7 Inside the Manor. The Domesday Book. The Royal Forests.
2 Squires and Knights (9, 10, 11)	8 The Market.
3 Monks, Scholars, Friars (12)	9 How Knights were trained. The training of Pages—the Page
4 Apprentices (15)	
5 Girls of the Middle Ages (13)	

¹ See p. 117.

² The figures in parentheses in the left hand column refer to the numbers of the corresponding topics in the right hand column.

- | | | |
|--------------------------------|--|---|
| 6 | Growth of towns
(14) | becomes a Squire — the duties
of the Squire — Tournaments —
Armour. |
| d 1 | Travel in the Middle
Ages | 10 Training boys for Knighthood. |
| 2 | Pilgrims | 11 How Squires became Knights. |
| 3 | Crusaders (23) | 12 Monks — training — life in a
Monastery. |
| 4 | Fairs and Merchants
(6) | 13 The life of girls, rich and poor,
in the Middle Ages. |
| 5 | Nobles, Sheriffs,
Judges (17) | 14 The growth of towns. The
Charter — walled towns. The
Market Place — Shops. |
| II KINGS IN THE MIDDLE
AGES | | 15 Apprentices. Life story of a
young apprentice. Different
trades in the towns. |
| 1 | John — the Magna
Charta (23, 24) | 16 Robin Hood. Sherwood Forest
and the town of Mansfield.
Robin Hood and Little John. |
| 2 | Edward I (25) | 17 Robin Hood and the Sheriff. |
| 3 | Ireland, Wales, Scot-
land, France. | 18 Robin Hood and Friar Tuck. |
| | | 19 Robin Hood and Sir Richard of
the Lea. |
| | | 20 Robin Hood meets Will Scarlet. |
| | | 21 Robin Hood rescues Will Stutely. |
| | | 22 The King comes to Sherwood. |
| | | 23 Richard I. King John and Robin
Hood. The Crusades. |
| | | 24 Kings in Robin Hood's time —
John and the Magna Charta. |
| | | 25 Edward I. |
| | | 26 Death of Robin Hood. |

The work in English in all its forms was equally as extensive as the history. Oral work was much in evidence, not only in discussions of illustrations and models, but in acting the plays,¹ learning poetry and conducting friends round the village. The use of encyclopaedias, reference books and dictionaries, as well as studying plays, poems, history books and literature (this was

¹See Appendix v, p. 298.

especially important in the Robin Hood phase of the work) introduced much and varied reading. Writing included exercises in technique, spelling and grammar, about a dozen compositions (some between three and four hundred words long), and the compiling of a glossary.

Handwork and art were more in evidence during the first part of the scheme. They included making and painting models of forts, battering-rams, castles, churches and houses — the whole being assembled to resemble the picture plan of the village of the Middle Ages from which the whole scheme developed. Posters were made showing the names of the 'villagers', the Norman knights, etc. Making a history scrapbook with a coloured cover; colouring and cutting out illustrations for the scrapbook and arranging and pasting pictures into it gave plenty of scope for manipulative work. A model of Sherwood Forest and the making of a Robin Hood frieze introduced art and handwork into the latter part of the scheme.

Other subjects did not come in very easily. An odd nature study lesson on birds of prey arose from a discussion on 'Hawking' and some measurement was needed in making the models, but apart from these and the dancing and singing needed in the play of the village fair the work centred almost entirely on history, English, handwork and art. One interesting point, however, of great significance in the teaching of geography arose. No geography as such came into the work but the conversion of the pictorial two-dimensional plan of the village into a three-dimensional model was an example of an exercise in map interpretation which should form a useful introduction to a scientific approach to geography at a later stage.

Travel

The work described above was done in the early days of the three years' experiment. It was one of the 'Teacher' projects and its course was directed largely by the teacher. The children, too, not brought up to think individually, tended to work as a

class with the result that there was a considerable degree of uniformity in their books. The work to-day is very different. Children of the same age make their own selections of pictures to illustrate their work — they draw freely and illustrate poems freely — they write about things that interest them and do not rely only on the teacher's suggestions.

It is difficult to know just how the work on travel began. Topical events such as a strike of dock hands, the travels of Toad in *The Wind in the Willows*, a pictorial map of Southampton Docks, all these gradually focused the attention of the children on local transport; at the same time visits to the school by members of H.M. Forces, the experiences of a former School Attendance Officer and stories told by the children's fathers carried interest further afield until the world became the centre of study.

Table 6, facing page 188, shows the extent of the work and the general development. The children have not yet become tired or lost interest — rather, drawing world maps free hand has become a favourite pastime. While these are drawn quickly, the children aim at accuracy: one child, for example, criticized his own map of the world in the following sentences:

'It [the map of the world] is not very good but I have tried. Africa is too far away from Spain and it is too little. And Burma is near the end of my page. Japan is nearly off my page.'

Alongside this work the class was engaged in formal lessons in English and arithmetic, so that the gaps shown on the chart were filled in during the set periods for the subjects. The free activity periods too brought in a large amount of written English and art. It is clear, therefore, that these nine-year-old children are receiving a very wide general education.

The model of the docks¹ is perhaps best described in the words of a boy in the class.

'Our model is on the left hand side of Mrs. W. [the class teacher], it is Southampton docks and our port. All round the

¹ See Plate v, facing p. 137.

side of the water there are big warehouses, to stock the things what come from abroad. Edward made some railway lines with his Meccano set and John D. made a train for it. One pair of lines is across the water, sometimes men who are fishing sit on them.

'There is a garage and a timber hut. Eric T. made about 6 cars of clay, he made a lot of ships too, all out of clay. Arthur D.'s brother made us a plane out of wood and he painted it too. Kenneth B. brought a cottage for a warehouse. All the sea is painted in blue while the land is painted in brown. There are a few horse and carts and a trough for the horses and dogs to drink out of. I.a. [the youngest children] made four ships for us and they are very nice. I made a capstan for the ships to tie up. Another boy made one as well. Norman L. made a thing for launching ships.'

Free Periods

This description was written during one of the boy's free periods and illustrates the interest that the 'project' work roused. A study of the records of the occupations chosen by members of different classes shows how often the children elected to spend their free time in doing something for the topic or 'project' in which they were engaged.

During free periods the children may do what they like provided that they do not interfere with the work of the other members of the class. As a rule the children remain in their own classrooms so that dramatization and other group activities are seldom chosen. Most of the work is individual, though contributions to class work are made when a child chooses to make something for the model or write an account of the work done.

Each child keeps his own weekly record. Those of two boys and two girls are given below¹ and indicate the variety of work that is done by each child and the difference between the boys'

¹ See Table 7, pp. 190-191.

and girls' choices. These children were nine years of age and were building the village of Merrymount at the time of the records. The first boy appears to prefer practical occupations, in contrast to the second boy who usually wished to read. The girls do not show such marked preferences; the second girl seems to be rather fond of knitting and sewing, but in neither case does there seem to be any outstanding interest or pursuit. In all these individual records the girls appear to be less adventurous than the boys;¹ perhaps girls' activities are still restricted by convention and habit.

Subjects

Besides these topics, which bring in English, history, geography, art, handwork and nature study, other work goes on which centres on particular school subjects.

Gardening is one of these. From the very nature of the subject, the garden has to be treated rather as a centre of interest than as a project. Advantage has to be taken of the weather, planting and hoeing have to be done at the right season; it is not possible therefore to allow the work to develop along perfectly free lines. If the production of food had not been so urgent the children could have been allowed to experiment and to plan their garden from year to year introducing flowers and risking failure of crops. But this could not be permitted during the past few years and the work in the garden has necessarily followed a pre-determined pattern. Another difficulty with this subject is that the school year does not coincide with the gardening year and under the present arrangement the children do not harvest the crops they grow; this is a disadvantage not only because the growth cycle is followed from an unusual starting-point but also, what is far more important, because the children do not see the results of their efforts at cultivation. It is possible, of course, to overcome this difficulty but the work described here is carried out with a

¹ See also Tables 19-23.

TABLE 7

RECORDS OF OCCUPATIONS DURING FREE PERIODS (NINE-YEAR-OLD CHILDREN)

<i>Week Ending</i>	<i>Boy 1</i>	<i>Boy 2</i>	<i>Girl 1</i>	<i>Girl 2</i>
Sept. 4th	Boat out of wood	Reading 'Our Navy' helped to make an aeroplane	Knitting - doll's pixie hood. Painting a pattern	Knitted - Doll's pram set. Painted a pattern
Sept. 11th	Painted picture	Reading - History book - Air Force book	Painted a pattern	Painted two d'oyleys
Sept. 18th	Helped to paint the Castle walls	Traced pictures of 'planes from Air Force book	Painted pattern of a cross	Sewed - Painted walls of the Castle
Sept. 25th	Drew a picture. Model of Cottage for the village. Painted a picture of a fireman	Reading - 'Britain's Glorious Navy'. Model of house for the Village. Reading 'Our Air Force'	Painted pattern. Cottage for the Village. Painted poster for classroom door	Finished painting Castle. Painted cottage for the village. Played with 'Pets' Post Office.
Oct. 2nd	Painted d'oyleys	Painted fences for the village	Helped to paint fields for the model village	Played 'Post Offices'. Painted d'oyleys. Knitted some baby's leg-gings
Oct. 9th	Putting stamps into a new album. Letter to a friend about the village	Reading 'King Group'. Letter to a friend about the village	Reading. Finished letter to a friend about the village	Abs.

Oct 16th	Abs.	Reading - 'Told to the Boys' Stamp Album	Reading 'Sunbeam', Painting picture of Cinderella	Painting d'oyleys. Sewing chair back cover. Painting two pictures of Norman times
Oct. 23rd	Abs.	Acting in a 'Fair of the Middle Ages' ¹	Dancing for the Fair	Abs.
Oct. 30th	Abs.	Reading 'Romance of the Nations'	Knitting - doll's pixie hood	Abs.
Nov. 6th	Writing a play with another boy about the village. Acted in play	Reading 'Jolly Jacks' 'The Navy'	Arithmetic sums	Arithmetic sums. Reading - the 'Tip Top' annual. Played Ludo. Knitted strips for a doll's pram cover
Nov. 13th	Writing another play. Writing a letter. Watching a boy with a chemistry set	Reading 'The Winner for Boys'. Writing a letter. Watching a boy with a chemistry set	Knitting and writing letters	Game - The Wizard of Oz. Knitting
Nov. 20th	Reading Robin Hood. Game Raiders and Fighters	Reading - History Book Making History scrapbook. Reading	Abs.	Knitting strips for a doll's pram cover. Making History note book. Knitting pixie hood
Nov. 27th	Abs.	Tracing. Handwork. Building with bricks	History scrapbook	Handwork - a comb case
Dec. 4th	Abs.	History scrapbook	History scrapbook	History scrapbook. Reading 'Tip Top Annual'

¹ See Appendix v B, p. 298

ten-year-old class which leaves at midsummer before the harvest is gathered in and therefore these conditions do obtain.

The garden was divided into four plots each cultivated by one of the four teams of the class. The first task consisted in harvesting the crops, mainly potatoes, which were dug, sorted and weighed. (The 1945 harvest amounted to 98 lb. of potatoes from 28 lb. of seed.) Flower seeds, too, were collected and dried. A compost heap was made and the ground prepared for the next year's crops. The harvest from the garden augmented by gifts of fruit and vegetables was sent to a children's hospital.

During the winter months plans for the next season were discussed and the distribution of crops, which was based on a scientific rotation, was determined. Diagrams 8 and 9 show the rotation proposed for the next three years and the plan for the school garden during the 1945 season.

Ministry of Agriculture pamphlets were collected; perennials along flower borders were cut down and a bonfire disposed of dry, hard twigs that were not suitable for the compost heap. The children wrote to seedsmen for catalogues and made out their orders. Bulbs for indoor decoration were planted and their growth observed.

In the spring the seed potatoes were sorted and put into trays to sprout. The ground, after lying fallow during the winter, was turned over and prepared for planting. Potatoes were planted and other root crops sown. Greens were sown in seed beds, thinned and transplanted when ready. Weeding, moulding up potatoes, gathering flowers and generally tending the plants occupied the summer term;¹ and amongst the crops stood 'Horace Pegleg', a scarecrow some 5½ ft. tall who kept marauders off the ground.

Associated with this work on gardening were other subjects — arithmetic, English, geography, art, handwork, and nature study. Arithmetic included weighing, records of sales and accounts, orders and use of catalogues, drawing to scale, and

¹ See Plate VIIIa, facing p. 140.

DIAGRAM 8

PLAN I. ROTATION PLAN FOR FOUR YEARS

1945—1948 INCLUSIVE

1945

GREENS
POTATOES
ROOTS

1946

ROOTS
GREENS
POTATOES

1947

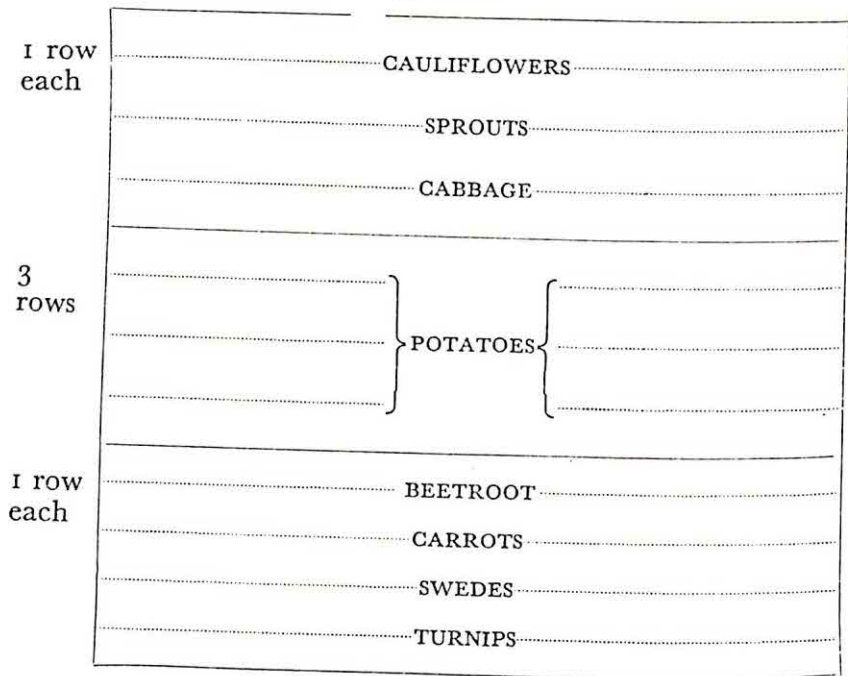
POTATOES
ROOTS
GREENS

1948

GREENS
POTATOES
ROOTS

DIAGRAM 9

PLAN II. PLAN OF SCHOOL GARDEN FOR ONE TEAM DURING THE
1945 SEASON



making plans of the garden to scale. English included the building up of a vocabulary round gardening terms; daily diaries were kept of the work done and letters written to seedsmen. Compositions were written on various gardening subjects, and poems were collected relating to flowers.

Famous markets in big cities and transport from market gardens to these industrial centres brought in geography. Models were made of garden tools and the garden plots and original illustrations of various garden activities were produced by the children. Garden scrapbooks were prepared in which printed and illustrated Ministry of Agriculture pamphlets and any cuttings from papers that had a bearing on the work were

collected. The type of soil was studied, collections of the local wild flowers were made and some seeds were germinated in the classroom under the children's observation.

Inside the classroom, too, a rock garden was built in a tray;¹ paths and steps were made of cement, pools were constructed and dwarf plants put in.

In all these topics a variety of school subjects are brought in to a greater or less degree. English, history, geography, handwork and art are the most prominent and an analysis of the work done over a period of four years will show how far the methods used in this school are successful in providing an adequate foundation for more advanced education at the Secondary School stage.

The children who entered the school in 1942 have been educated on these free lines during the whole of their Junior School career. They are now in their last year and will be going on to some form of secondary education. Although they have been through all the experimental stages of the work their achievement gives the most complete picture of the amount of ground that can be covered. Table 10, facing p. 196, summarizes the topics taken in each class during the four years 1942-43 to 1945-46. An interesting characteristic is that at the top end of the school the topics become more formalized while with the younger children it has been found that topics tend to break down into individual pursuits. It would appear too from a study of records of free activities that at the seven-year-old level the children are still mainly individualistic in outlook and inclination and are hardly ready to co-operate in group or class activities. The eight- and nine-year-old children, however, tend to use their free periods to do something associated with the class or group work. These children seem to prefer to work in groups towards a common end and co-operative work in the form of topics, centres of interest and projects seem to be most successful with children of these ages. At the top end of the school the ten-year-old children tend to keep their project work and individual

¹ See Plate VIII *b*, facing p. 140, and Appendix v A, p. 298.

interests separate. They will co-operate in a class activity more because they recognize the part their particular work plays in the production of the whole rather than because they feel an urge towards working in groups. They appear, therefore, to be beginning to associate ideas and classify knowledge¹ and at the same time to discover specific interests distinct from the class or group activity. It would appear, therefore, that at the bottom end of the school the project periods could be absorbed in the free activity periods; in the middle of the school the free activity periods could be absorbed into the project periods (though it would be important to provide enough freedom for those children who retain independent interests); and at the top end of the school both free activity and project periods should be retained.²

Table 11, facing p. 196, shows the passage through the school of the age group which entered in 1942. The organization of the school into eight classes with one remedial class is almost the simplest organization possible. Even so this age group split into five sets following different routes through the school.³

Set 1	36	children	went	into	classes	Ib, IIb, IIIb, IVb
Set 2	8	"	"	"	"	Ib then the remedial class
Set 3	2	"	"	"	"	Ib, IIb, IIIa, IVa
Set 4	2	"	"	"	"	Ia, IIb, IIIa, IVa
Set 5	48	"	"	"	"	Ia, IIa, IIIa, IVa

Under the old method of working through set syllabuses it is clear that the children in sets 3 and 4 would be at a disadvantage when they entered Class IIIa. This does not prove to be the case when subjects are approached through the study of topics.

In geography, for example, all the children have covered the three major branches of work suggested in Chapter IV.⁴ This

¹ Cf. p. 86.

² See Table v, p. 179.

³ See also Appendix IV, p. 296.

⁴ See p. 91.

is shown in Table 12 in which the work in geography arising through the topics studied during the four years is summarized. The world aspect is taken in each case and every child entering a Post-Primary School will have surveyed the world from at least three different angles. Every child will have looked at his own locality in greater or less detail and every child will have been introduced to stories of adventure or exploration. The children in Set 3, therefore, can go on to the third year's work just as easily as children in Set 5 and children in Set 4 can go on to the second-year's work as easily as children in Sets 1 or 3. The problem of fitting a syllabus into a school where the organization is difficult, therefore, is entirely eliminated by this method of approach to education.

Records

It will be seen from Tables 6 and 18 that some subjects tend to be omitted from nearly every topic. Arithmetic, for example, occurs only occasionally; there are many gaps in the work in nature study; art is often restricted to copying or tracing or colouring outlines. It is clearly necessary to note where these gaps occur and to take steps to fill them in. Careful records have to be kept, therefore, of the ground covered in all subjects.

Four types of records are kept in this school. The teachers do not necessarily keep all types. They are free to use any methods they like and set down their notes in any form that gives them the greatest help. The only rule to be observed is that some kind of record is made every month.

These monthly records are not restricted to project or free activity work, they cover the whole month's achievement. The form of the record differs from teacher to teacher. That for the IVa class, for example, which was engaged in cultivating the garden, has more the character of a forecast. This is possible for a topic such as gardening which must of necessity follow a more or less pre-arranged pattern so that the actual work done differs very little from the plan. In this record the work is

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entered under three headings — Project and Free Activity work, English and Arithmetic with occasionally an additional note on some unusual feature. The record for March reads as follows:

MARCH 1946

Project and free work

Collections of various pictures to be sorted and distributed by the children to various owners of books, gardens, toys, sports, etc. Seed potatoes to be sorted and put in a sand tray to sprout ready for planting. 28 lb. Arran Peak potatoes prepared in this way.

Children make model garden in spring in classroom, using cement for paths and steps, and as many rock-plants or spring flowers as available at the time. Other plants to be added as they come into flower.

English

Free stories, illustrated and contributed by all children in the class, to be made into separate books: e.g.

‘Alice in Wonderland’ stories

‘My Pet’ stories

‘Favourite Scripture stories’

‘Treasure Island’ stories

‘Tom Sawyer’ stories

Arithmetic

Revision of all rules, simple fractions, problems bringing in all rules learnt. Children to have weekly tests beginning with H.T.U. in all rules to show progress and attainment ready for yearly record cards.

Other interests

Boys to be tried out to find a good school cricket team to play against other schools in the ——— schools cricket league. Other

TABLE 12

THE AGE GROUP IN A FOUR-YEAR COURSE

	<i>Set 4</i>	<i>Set 5</i>
Food in the shops - they come to shops -	Greek Children - homes - weather - vegetation and animal life. Visit to Greek Exhibition	Greek Children - homes - weather - vegetation and animal life. Visit to Greek Exhibition
Animals - life of Animal traders - food. animals. the zoo.	Lands where animals live - Wild life of animals - Animal hunters - Fur traders - Animals for food. Catching wild animals. Animals at the zoo. The local zoo	English Homes - clothes Eskimo Homes - clothes - food
The world's great routes - maps of the world. Great explorers - The countries passed through. The Globe - Transport, ports - the locality - cargoes along the routes - Aids to navigation - weather observations - Roads, Canals, Railways, Seas, Air. Charts, Maps, the compass	The world's great routes - maps of the world. Great explorers - The countries passed through. The Globe - Transport, ports - the locality - cargoes along the routes - Aids to navigation - weather observations - Roads, Canals, Railways, Seas, Air. Charts, Maps, the compass	The world's great routes - maps of the world. Great explorers - The countries passed through. The Globe - Transport, ports - the locality - cargoes along the routes - Aids to navigation - weather observations - Roads, Canals, Railways, Seas, Air. Charts, Maps, the compass
Markets. Covent Garden and Billingsgate in London. Shudehill, Smithfield in Manchester. Transport of Vegetables - Market towns of England	The World's Markets. Smithfield, Covent Garden and Billingsgate in London. Shudehill, Smithfield in Manchester. Transport of Vegetables - Market towns of England	The World's Markets. Smithfield, Covent Garden and Billingsgate in London. Shudehill, Smithfield in Manchester. Transport of Vegetables - Market towns of England

boys to have practice and all learn to keep scores of matches. Friendly matches played with local schools when possible.

But a topic like 'Travel' may develop in many different ways and a forecast is of less value than a record. In the record quoted here the subjects are kept distinct. This is useful because a check can be kept more easily on the ground covered by each subject and enables the teacher to see at a glance where gaps have occurred and give direction to the work accordingly. The record for November and December is as follows:

NOVEMBER AND DECEMBER

English

Vocabulary work, e.g. in home and family — which, beautiful, other, any.

Writing practice — Preparation for letter writing

'Wind in the Willows' continued

'Roadways' R. B. Ince

'Roadways' Masfield

Arithmetic

Book III. Children proceed individually where capable. Simple areas. Multiplication by 2 figures — Time, Capacity, Length, Tables. Number tables to 6 times revise. The Clock. Addition of simple fractions. Using rules that are now fairly familiar — Children make written sums on project work.

Geography

Weather chart and observations — Nearing the shortest day. Sun's position and sunlight with regard to classroom, school and field.

Drake's journey — The Great Oceans — c.f. his 3 years with present day travelling — plane 240 mls. per hour.

History

Nation of seafaring people particularly of south and west.

Captain Cook of east. Drake in search of gold and adventure. Spain and England. Elizabeth. Need for ships. Alfred. Henry VII to Elizabeth. Spanish Treasure, Armada.

Nature

Chart and Nature Table. Collection of seeds, fruits, twigs showing next year's buds. Evergreens. Winter sleep of bear and dormouse and hedgehog. Birds that stay — thrush, blue tit, sparrow.

Handwork and Art

Bonnet from odd material. Blanket stitch and lazy daisy. Mats, knitting. Calendars. Christmas Cards, Decorations.

Table 12, facing p. 198, is compiled from this record.

Weekly records are kept by some teachers. These give details of the development of any project that is in progress and consist of a general account of what has been achieved. Sometimes a note is added on the work done in a particular subject. Here, for example, is an entry made during the development of the Merrymount activity.

Week Ending October 2nd

General plan of village discussed — river, highroad, north field (strips), etc. Completion of cottages for village. Castle completed — moat painted.

Children chose name of person in village — Lord of the manor, villein, etc.

Handwork

Pastel work — completion of cottages.

These records are kept in foolscap notebooks and by the end of the year the teacher has a complete story of the development of the theme. The stages given in the right hand column showing the development of the Merrymount topic, pp. 184-185, are taken from this weekly record.

Individual records of children's activities during their free periods are also kept. Children often keep their own records in little notebooks. Table 7, p. 190, for example, is compiled from children's own records. Their notes are actually more precise than the table suggests since many children give the day of the week on which they were engaged in a particular activity. Some teachers supplement the children's records with their own notes on individual children or general activities in the classroom. For example, one record has this entry 'Pat A. still drawing and writing quietly by herself'. Remarks of this kind are very helpful, especially if any attempt is made in the school at compiling a cumulative record for each child. It may also give a picture of the class as a whole. In the same record, for example, these two notes are appended to the list of occupations of each child:

September 29th

Audrey P and Maureen P in sweet shop serving. Elsie, Shirley, Marion, Pat, Audrey P. making 'points' for personal ration cards — little squares of paper with pencil squares and numbers. Maureen cutting off points. Shop became very popular — Miss W and I presented with personal ration cards — Shop became too popular — queues uncontrollable — so shop closed. Teddy: 'How do you spell "closed"?' Later, Margaret: 'How do you spell "opened"?' David wrote 'closed' on one side of board and 'opened' on the other side.

Edwin S., new to-day, given board and chalk (coloured) drew for a short time with colours, then did T.U. addition sums for the rest of the time.

These comments give a good impression of the general character of the class at work.

Besides these records of the work done by the class and the occupations of individual children a record is kept for each child. This is filled in at the end of the year so that by the end of their Junior School course there is a complete record of each child's achievement.

RESULTS

The end of the fourth year of experiment is an appropriate time to review this free method of approach and assess, as far as possible, its success.

That the ground covered in most subjects seems to be satisfactory is shown by Tables 6, 10 and 12. Difficulty is met in the case of arithmetic, however, which does not find a place easily in the development of a topic. A certain amount of measuring in connection with handwork or cost, time and distance may come in but the arithmetic involved is frequently out of sequence in the arithmetic learning process and the whole topic has to be held up while the previous stages are taught. Since the topics develop naturally from the children's experience, the small part arithmetic plays suggests that even in everyday activities and situations it plays only a small part. This in turn suggests that too much importance has been attached to the subject in the past. Nevertheless, it is important that all children should be able to perform the four rules in the more common weights and measures and arrangements must be made to meet this need.

In this school arithmetic is given a fixed period on the timetable and any arithmetic that occurs in the working out of a project is done in addition to the formal lessons and not either instead of or as a basis for formal lessons.

Although arithmetic plays only a small part in co-operative activities children do choose to do 'sums' in their free time and shopping with its attendant money calculations and points system is very popular. Now and again an individual child may show real interest in some simple arithmetical process. A child of seven, for example, who was using a printing set during his free time to make up simple addition sums got so interested in the arithmetic that he discarded the printing set after working half a page of sums and filled the rest of the page with written figures. The free time, then, provides an opportunity for some of the practice necessary in learning arithmetic but it cannot be a substitute for systematic teaching.

The case is entirely different in English. English in all its branches is far more vivid and real than formerly. The amount of writing produced is much greater, the language is more natural and the vocabulary much wider. The description of the model of Southampton Docks,¹ the account of how the rock-garden was built² and many other 'compositions' show that most children possess the power to express themselves in written English and that it can be brought out at as young an age as seven if there is something interesting to write about.

Spelling and handwriting seem to have suffered. That is only to be expected when it is realized that the vocabulary is so much larger and that so much more is put on paper in the same length of time than formerly. The problem of writing can be overcome fairly easily. 'Best' writing can be demanded in the more formal English exercises which will not suffer through attention being focused on the mechanics of writing as well as on the language. But to demand of a child his 'best' writing when he is struggling to express his own ideas is only to hamper and frustrate his efforts.

The problem of spelling is more difficult. Children ask how to spell words, and errors in the spelling of common words in their work are corrected. There is a certain amount of dictation, and children compile their own vocabularies, but the spelling still remains less good than under the old system. The gain in ease of expression and width of vocabulary, however, surely outweighs the lowering of the standard of spelling, especially when it is remembered that dictionaries are available to correct the latter, but nothing can produce the former if it is not allowed to develop at the Primary School stage.

Free expression in writing is not limited to project work and the periods set aside for formal work in English. All the children keep diaries or make anthologies or collect little libraries of books, consisting of stories they have heard and rewritten in their own words and illustrated. Diaries, too, are illustrated and

¹ See pp. 187-188.

² See Appendix v, p. 298.

it is interesting to note how the proportion of writing to illustration increases as the children gain in ease of written expression. One boy of eight wrote a continuous diary of between three and four thousand words between September and May. He wrote on 52 different topics and occasionally referred the reader to an earlier entry: 'He [Daddy] brought me some Bananas as I told you on page 16. That was in my first book of course', ends a little account of what his Daddy brought him when he 'came home from the wars'. This boy's latest effort is the addition of another verse to a little poem the teacher had taken with the class: It runs like this:

THE MAGIC WISHING RING

I found a Magic wishing ring,
 You could not wish for everything
 Under a haystack it was found
 They said it would be on the ground
 And three wishes you have — see —
 One's happiness for you and me.
 Two's things to come to normal price
 And things off points like cheese and spice.
 Three's trees and fruit most everywhere
 And Flowers that bloom all here and there.

Even the little seven-year-olds, so many of whom were mute and thought to be incapable of writing more than one sentence in words of not more than four letters under the formal controlled system, will write simple sentences and use quite big words when not hampered by rules and lines. Plate ix shows two pages from the story of Bambi written and illustrated by a class of rather backward seven-year-old children.

Letter writing has also become a favourite occupation and letters of eight-year-old children brought up on the freer methods have much more life and interest than letters of nine-year-old children written in 1936 when the standard of work attained by formal methods was at its height. Moreover, the letters of the younger children average 15 to 20 words longer

than those of the older group. There is ample proof, therefore, that the work in English has greatly improved.

Perhaps the most interesting result of the free approach is seen in the independence of thought and action and the alive attitude of the children. This is most evident during the free periods but a purposefulness can be observed in all activities and an inquiring outlook has become a characteristic feature of all classes from the youngest to the oldest.

This independence of thought and fearlessness to express an opinion or query the statement of grown-ups is shown by little episodes that occur from time to time. A few such episodes are given below.

1. During a free period a boy was drawing a snow scene on his own blackboard and muttering to himself all the time 'It's cold — it's cold!' Suddenly he cleaned his board and immediately proceeded to write out the verse

'The North wind doth blow . . . etc.' (7 years old)

2. Shopping is a favourite occupation during free periods in one class. On one occasion a boy was seen to be returning to the shop with a cheese box in his hand. On being asked what he was doing the solemn reply was 'I'm going to make a complaint. This box is empty!'¹

(7 years old)

3. The children were playing a word game in one of the formal English periods. They had been given the word 'Insufficiently' and the children were to build up words from it. One might perhaps question the suitability of the word for eight-year-olds, but it did not daunt these children. During the free period that followed a boy was found looking in a dictionary. When asked what he was looking for he replied 'I wanted to see if you spelt that word right'.

(8 years old)

4. A party of visitors, intending teachers, from the Navy were in the room. The Head Mistress introduced the

¹ Another illustration of how real this shopping activity is to the children will be found on p. 212.

leader of the party to the class teacher as 'Lieutenant so and so'. A boy near the front immediately jumped up and remarked, 'It says captain in my book for two rings'. 'No, sonny, four for captains', said the officer. The boy sat down rather doubtful, but made no comment. The next morning he arrived at school with two volumes under his arm, one from home and the other from the public library. He went straight to the teacher's desk and said, 'That man was quite right — it is four for captain!', and he opened the books at the appropriate pages to prove it.

(9 years old)

5. The class teacher was absent, but a visitor was taken into the room and left with the children who volunteered to explain the work they were doing on 'Travel'. At break one of the boys went to the Head Mistress for his dinner ticket, remarking as he made his purchase, 'That gentleman seems very interested, Miss W'.

(9 years old, backward)

6. Mr. B had just given a talk on his travels in China whilst in the army. William, a member of the class, met his class teacher and said 'Isn't it interesting, Mrs. W.?' (9 years old)

7. A boy in the class working on the village of Merrymount had been very difficult for some time, owing to bad nervous trouble. When the village was being built he asked if he could make the church. At the end of his first attempt he said, 'It isn't very good: please can I take it home and I'll finish it?' He took it and enlisted the help of his father — and together they made a very good job of it. (This was the beginning of a marked improvement in the boy.)

Another boy very reserved and shy brought a wooden model of a battering-ram for the castle. He had made it at home and put it on the model without any comment. No one suggested this — it was his own idea. When asked how he found out how to make it he said, 'I remembered that picture in the history book, and I thought we could have one in our castle'.

(both 9 years old)

8. Following a concert given by Class I the Head Mistress met Joe P in the corridor. In a very friendly manner he remarked, 'It was jolly good for Class I wasn't it?'

(10 years old)

9. Barbara approached the Head Teacher one day to ask for the address of a children's hospital as she had some story books at home to send. The Head Mistress suggested at first a hospital not far from the school. 'I think the children in that hospital will be too young', said Barbara. 'Well, what about the . . . Children's Hospital', said the Head Mistress, and Barbara sent a parcel and letter to the Matron. (This child wants to be a nurse.) (10 years old)

These incidents show how natural and independent children become when allowed freedom to develop their own individuality, and how well worth-while this experiment has been.

IV. FREEDOM WITHIN A FORMAL SETTING¹

THE SETTING

IN the girls' school described in this chapter the aim of the Head Mistress has been to encourage initiative and individuality, to develop a sense of responsibility and to draw out powers of leadership. This is done within a setting which although formal is not rigid.

The school is in a working-class area. It is housed in a 'temporary' building which has been in use for some years. War conditions have led to the Infant department taking over some of the rooms and this in turn, as the numbers in the school increased, led to the necessity of accommodating two girls' classes on the upper floor of the main building in a boys' department. The temporary building has no hall and, therefore, school functions, physical training and dancing have to be arranged in the ground-floor hall of the main block to suit the convenience of the Infant department. Although there is plenty of co-operation it is inevitable that both schools should be handicapped to a certain extent and that the time-table should be controlled by these accommodation problems.

Difficulty also arises in connection with the two classes housed in the boys' department. The classrooms open into the boys' hall, making regulation of movement and limitation of activities essential. In spite of these difficulties the children grow into friendly, helpful little beings who have learnt to take responsibility and to use their own common sense and powers of initiative.

The school caters for children from seven to fourteen. It is organized into seven classes, four of which are in the Junior section, and it has been possible to retain this organization in spite of staffing difficulties for several years. Descriptions of a day in the bottom class and a day in the top class of the junior

¹ Cf. p. 93.

section bring out the great development of individuality and social adjustment that are achieved in the school and the extent to which freedom can be obtained within a formal framework.

THE SEVEN-YEAR-OLD CLASS

The class consists of 49 children. All except one belong to the 7-8 age group, the odd child being very backward and remaining a second year in the bottom class. The class is accommodated in a rather small classroom in the boys' department. It is, therefore, very overcrowded, there is little space for movement of any kind, and noise from the boys' hall outside is sometimes disturbing.

The room is always a busy place and every child has plenty to do but it is nevertheless quiet. The children are encouraged to show each other their efforts and discuss one with another, but apart from a few children they are not interested in each other's efforts¹ as are the children of the next class. Lack of discrimination is apparent when children are chosen for special jobs — the class tend to choose those children who were prominent in the Infant School, for example, a pretty child, well-dressed and clean, or a child with fair, curly hair; these two children rather tend to take on all the jobs and the class tends to accept it; while a child with a very different poorer background may be shunned by many children in the class. The mistress, Miss S, does all she can to alter this and much improvement is seen during the course of the year but the children in the class are on the whole selfish and self-centred compared with those who are slightly older.

Ease with visitors and freedom of speech has not been attained by these children. They are mute with strangers; when addressed, they are shy and except for one or two, do not do themselves justice. Instead of speaking to one another they whisper, often behind their hands, though no one would reprimand them for speaking aloud. They have got from some-

¹ Cf. pp. 42-45, 195.

where the idea that they must not talk in school; they have learned, too, somewhere to approach a teacher with the right-hand raised when wishing to ask a question. Very slowly the mistress is trying to establish more natural behaviour.

The children are fond of their form mistress but with the exception of a few their mothers' word still comes first. They do not yet stand on their own feet and think for themselves and are ready to run home when things do not go the way they want.

On a day in March, 88 children from the two bottom classes assembled in the small classroom. They sat in threes on the dual desks and the rest sat on the floor. After registration a short service of prayers was taken and then followed the Scripture story. The story was 'The Prodigal Son'. A large coloured picture was displayed before the class depicting the return of the prodigal son. The picture was well coloured with reds, purples and gold and the children were asked what they thought the picture was about.

BERYL I should think that man with the beard has a lot of money.

MISS S Why?

BERYL Well, all his cloak is embroidered in gold and it's made of silk.

MISS S How do you know it is silk?

BERYL I mean silk velvet—it's soft when you stroke it. (*Making a stroking gesture with both hands as she spoke.*)

IRENE It's an old-fashioned picture, Miss S, because he's got jewels stitched on his cloak and they only wore them in Bible days.

MISS S Do you like the picture, Joyce?

JOYCE Yes — because his cloak is a lovely red.

MISS S What can you tell me about the other man in the picture?

MARGARET The old man is kissing the other one.

JEAN The other man is all in rags and his feet are bleeding and he looks tired and — Miss S, is the old man in the red coloured cloak Jesus?

MISS S Do you think it might be? (*Divided opinion on this point.*)

JEAN (*who had been pondering*) I don't think so Miss S, Jesus wouldn't have jewels on his cloak because he wasn't rich.

MISS S Then who do you think he is, Jean?

JEAN Perhaps it's just a rich man in the Bible meeting a poor man he loved.

The teacher then told the story while the children listened absorbed. They were then ready to examine the picture again and it was remarkable how the children fixed their eyes on the picture and those free to move crept nearer still. Details of the picture were noted — sandals on the feet of the rich man, the bare feet of the son. After ample time had been given to the picture:

MISS S Would anyone like to ask me a question?

MEGAN I do think it is a sad story Miss S. Is it true?

MISS S It is a story Jesus told the people.

The mistress then explained the story very simply to the children.

MAVIS In Sunday School we had about a famine and the teacher there said it was when there was no food and she said a lot of people to-day in other countries will get a famine if we don't send them some food.

Miss S then asked for any other pictures or comments. One little girl produced a weekly publication and said, 'There's a picture here called "Return of the Prince of Peace". It is a picture of Jesus'. After the picture of the Prodigal Son had been given one more examination the older class went to their own room and the picture was pinned up on the wall.

Then followed oral and written composition. The mistress told the story of 'The Rabbit who couldn't jump'. The children thoroughly enjoyed this and there was much spontaneous laughter. The story was then built up by the children sentence by sentence orally, and as difficult words were mentioned they

were put on the blackboard. The children were asked to spell some words and to suggest better words. The difference between 'teach' and 'learn' was explained since many children said, 'The mother rabbit could not learn the baby to jump'. Spellings on the blackboard were taken and slower children were asked to put the words into sentences. They all enjoyed the fun of the story.

While blackboards were being changed the children took out their 'table books' and repeated tables. Then followed a few minutes quick testing of tables and mental work (about 10 minutes). The class was then divided into two sections, the 'a' section to do written work and the 'b' section to do oral and written work.

A grocer's shop had been fitted up in the corner of the room occupied by the disused fire-place and this was used by group 'b'. Margaret was the grocer — she donned her apron and took up her place behind the counter. While the mistress was setting the top section to work Margaret straightened her packets and tins, dusted her counter, put the 'till' ready, sat on her stool and folded her arms. June came into the shop.

JUNE Good morning, Mrs. Smith. I want a packet of Quaker Oats, a Bird's Custard Powder, and a jar of marmalade.

MRS. SMITH [Margaret] Good morning, Mrs. Metcalfe. I'll just make your bill out. Quaker Oats — 8½d., Custard Powder — 3d., and marmalade 1s. 2½d.

(she proceeded to write these amounts on the paper. At the same time the mistress wrote them on the blackboard.)

MRS. METCALFE Oh, the marmalade should only be 1s. 1d. It was last lesson.

MISS S What have you got to say to that, Mrs. Smith?

MRS. SMITH Oh well, it's gone up to-day.

MRS. METCALFE *(quick as lightning)* Well, it's only got 1s. 1d. on the price list.

MRS. SMITH I've been so busy this morning with the children, Mrs. Metcalfe, I haven't had time to alter the list. *(Laughter)*

The amounts were added up by the children and '4d. change, Mrs. Smith' was soon announced. Mrs. Metcalfe received her change and made way for Mrs. Thomas. The same procedure was followed and as she put her goods into her basket she remarked 'When will you be getting some tins of pears, Mrs. Smith?' 'Oh, in the new rationing period, Mrs. Thomas' replied Mrs. Smith. The bill was totalled and change calculated. Every child took part in the lesson and conversation was easy and natural. Meanwhile, the top section worked hard taking no interest in the activities of the second group.

Then followed milk and playtime. These children take their bottles and sit in their desks. They are not encouraged to hold a conversation while they drink their milk as the whole process is very slow and their actual handling of the bottles takes so much longer than with older children. As they finish they put their bottles into the cases and get ready to go down to the playground. The mistress talked to the children who had finished; one child saying 'I can remember nearly all the prices on the list and I'm going to make a shopping order out to-night to spend 10s.'

Written composition followed the morning break. The work consisted of writing the story heard after Scripture. The class was divided into three groups; all were intent on the work and there was little conversation during the period. Children made use of their own spelling-books when they were doubtful about the spelling of a word. As they finished they took out a reading-book and kept themselves employed until the end of the morning.

The first fifteen minutes of the afternoon were given to poetry. The children are well trained in speech and pronunciation; they have a great store of poems by heart already and they chose freely what they would like to hear. For the reading which followed the class was again divided into three sections. The children in the top section are fairly fluent and read stories and as the Head Mistress walked round the class one child said 'Shall I tell you what it is about before you get to

here?' indicating her page. The child gave a very well told version of the story, ending up with '... and that's where I have just got up to. May I tell you what happens next when I've read it?'

Daffodils were then taken from the Nature Table and handed round — at least one flower between two children. The children were obviously delighted and the mistress gave them a few minutes to make all their exclamations and remarks. The flowers were very fresh and conversation again became free:

LILY Oh, I've never smelt such scented ones as these.

PAT It makes you think of that poem we learned about 'Daffy-downdilly' — oh, we never thought of that one to-day in poetry.

DOROTHY I know a story about a crocus, a snowdrop and a daffodil. The snowdrop wanted to come up and see what the world was like, but the daffodil advised it to wait. Snowdrop was impatient and came; so crocus said, 'I am going, too, it must be nice in the world above'. At last the daffodil said, 'I am curious to know what it is like, I will go too'. Every year snowdrop comes first, then crocus and last of all the daffodil.

MISS S Where did you read that story?

DOROTHY From a book I got from the library.

The children then examined the flower and found its different parts, chattering and showing one another. There was a general discussion of where the bee gets into the flower until one of the children said, 'Oh, Miss S I wish we could draw it. Can we?'

There was little time left but paper was taken from the cupboard, colours produced from desks and the children were soon busy. During this work a few of the less shy children spoke to the Head Mistress:

EUNICE My Auntie bought me a pad at Woolworth's. It hasn't lines on. When we had a lesson on a snowdrop, Miss S gave us all a few to take home, and I painted a picture of

mine. Then I painted a picture of a crocus out of my Daddy's allotment and I shall paint a daffodil to-night in my pad. Three paintings in my pad. I think I'll keep it for special paintings.

BERYL My Mummy made me this gym slip and white blouse.

AUDREY In February I had four shillings for my birthday. I bought a bunch of daffodils and I put half the bunch in the parlour. My mother came in and she was cross. She said I shouldn't have bought flowers, they are too dear. I said it was my birthday money. She thought I had only six for four shillings till she went upstairs; then she was pleased and she began to smile because I had put the other six in my Mummy and Daddy's bedroom as a surprise. She said she would give me the four shillings back, but I wouldn't have it and she said it was a lovely surprise for her. The daffodils were just like these but they had very long stalks and my Mummy said it was good they lasted a fortnight. I put fresh water in every morning before I came to school.

Break followed but the children were soon back in the classroom, some anxious to finish colouring the daffodil, some playing with the shop and making out their own bills, others helping to give out paper, brushes and colours for the art lesson.

The mistress explained how poetry and nursery rhymes made a pattern. In physical training, the children had made a pattern with their feet and now they were going to see what the nursery rhymes they had danced to looked like on paper. The children very quickly got the idea of the rhythm and the beat and suggested how this could be shown by thick lines, thin lines, curves and points. They quickly grasped the idea of putting one rhyme on the first and third lines and the other on the second and fourth lines, and most saw that Baa Baa Black Sheep was 'pointed' and Rock-a-bye Baby was 'curved'. When the children had completed the work on the large sheet of paper and set them to dry, some of the keener ones tried out other nursery rhymes in pencil on pieces of paper. They got the idea

of the repeat and could differentiate between a 'pointed' pattern and a 'smooth' one. As this was their first attempt at this sort of pattern-making a very good start had been made. The papers were put to dry on the cupboard top and the children were encouraged to discuss what had been done. Discussion was fairly free — remarks were passed about the good work but the children found difficulty in assessing the rest.

The afternoon's work was rounded off by a 'Cinema' show. This had been made by the children and was worked by two of the class. The 'film' consisted of a continuous roll of paper mounted on a wooden rod fixed in two slots in the sides of a box which served as a theatre. The 'film' was gradually rolled from the top rod to a lower one. The children gathered round and stared completely absorbed. The actual 'show' lasted fifteen minutes. The 'film' depicted news items, the story of Cinderella, the story of some gangsters, nature-study pictures, and travel pictures. The pictures had all been done by the children but the mistress had mounted them and interspersed the printed captions which had also been made by the children. During the performance there was complete silence broken only by a spontaneous burst of laughter or an ejaculation. At the end of the 'show' there was a burst of clapping and 'Oh, let's have it again!' but it was time to clear up and with the promise to choose two other operators and give the show another day, the children prepared for prayers and 'hometime'.

THE TEN-YEAR-OLD CLASS

By the time the children reach the top class of the Junior section of the school, they have lost the shyness and self-consciousness that characterized them at the bottom of the school and they talk freely to one another and to the staff and Head Mistress. There are 46 children in the class, 3 of whom for various reasons associated with health belong to the next age group.

Two classes combine for scripture and over 80 children

assembled in the classroom, packed three on a desk. A very quick inspection was made by the two mistresses as the children entered the room. Registers were called; inquiries about children who should attend the clinic; absentee notes handed in; messages from parents delivered; money for milk handed to the mistresses; and other routine clerical tasks were completed. When this was over a hush fell on the room in anticipation of Scripture, but the mistress was not quite ready. A late girl entered. In this class it is considered a very bad habit to come to school late. The children all noted the girl's obvious discomfort and listened to her reason. She explained that her mother was ill with 'flu, that there were two small babies at home one of whom was also ill, so that she had to go to the butcher's before coming to school. This was accepted as a legitimate reason by the mistress and the child slipped into her place.

There is no punishment in this class for coming late. It is just 'not done', and the children are so upset when they are late that little need be said by the mistress. The children have been impressed by the importance of being in time ever since they came into this class. They do not tell untruths to make a reasonable excuse; late pupils with very anxious expressions may say 'I've no excuse, Miss W', or 'We all overslept, Miss W'.

While Miss W completed an absentee form the girls talked quietly. One group standing near the wall were pointing to and discussing history drawings pinned up the day before; one child was telling a group round her about a picture she had brought to school relating to some previous lesson; another child with an illustrated Bible was showing the pictures and her new bookmarks and ribbons to her friends; another child entered the room with a vase of twigs she had been arranging in water. Practically every child in the class was talking but there was little noise in spite of the animation that characterized the conversation. In this class, unlike the bottom class, there is obvious interest in one another's experiences.

When the clerical work was finished the mistress welcomed

the girls with, 'Good morning children'. Immediately all conversation ceased — the children stood quietly and remained standing with a 'Good morning, Miss W'. This greeting had been exchanged many times already by individual girls and the mistress. These children greet their own and other mistresses as they meet them in the playground, in the corridors, and in the street as they approach the school. The shy smile with the greeting 'Hello' of the younger children has long been replaced by 'Good morning, Miss —. May I carry your case?' This greeting of the staff is done unobtrusively: they have been told long before they reach this class that it is not polite to call greetings across the street in loud voices, nor to run wildly towards a teacher as soon as they see her. They speak only if they are within speaking distance. They open doors for teachers and each other if their common sense tells them that to do so would be helpful. These little courtesies have been picked up gradually by the children during the years they have spent in the Junior School.

The formal greeting was an indication that Miss W was ready to begin the day's work. 'We will sing "New every morning is the love",' she said. This was sung by the children while Miss W played the piano. Then followed a short service with responses taken from the book 'School Worship'. A few bars of music brought the service to an end and the children quietly sat again, some on the desks, some on the floor, a few preferring to stand.

The story was that of the life of St. Bernard. The mistress asked the children to name any saint they had ever heard of, and one after another in rapid succession the following were given: St. Patrick of Ireland, St. Francis of Assisi, St. Luke, St. George of England, St. Matthew 'who wrote a book about Jesus', St. Paul 'who was struck blind when he was called Saul', St. Andrew of Scotland, St. Augustine, St. Mark, St. John, St. Giles, St. David, St. Mary, St. Peter, St. Teresa, St. Joan of Arc, St. Stephen (interrupted here while Miss W recalled how and why he was stoned), St. Veronica (here a newspaper

cutting was handed to Miss W by Maureen who had 'always saved it because it was a saint') — then 'please could we have St. Florence Nightingale?' A discussion on this followed. Then St. Agnes, St. Bernadette (no difficulty arose here as a large proportion of the class had seen the film 'The Song of Bernadette') and lastly St. Cyprian. St. Cyprian's Church stands next to the school and many of these children attend this church but nobody could say who St. Cyprian was nor could the mistress. The children volunteered to ask the Sunday School teacher and the rector before the next lesson. Irene, however, knew that 'there's a book in the library about saints, Miss W, and perhaps St. Cyprian is in that. I will get it out when I go to-night'. Then it was that Miss W said they were going to talk about St. Bernard. Doreen asked immediately whether it was anything to do with St. Bernard dogs. She recalled that she wrote about these dogs the previous week; on being told that the dogs were called after the saint, she explained that she read the matter for her composition in a book from the library.

The mistress then proceeded to tell the story of the life of the boy Bernard who became a saint. The children liked the story and listened attentively. Miss W continually invited suggestions by questions, 'What do you think he would use to build his hut?' 'They were above the tree line. How would they get the wood there?' 'What kind of boots would they wear?' 'What would they carry?' Axes, spikes, food and water were suggested. A picture was drawn of the intense cold, blizzards and howling winds and it was told how the boy Bernard clung to his dog for protection. When Bernard became a man he knew that his dog was better able to weather the storms than any man and he conceived the idea of dogs rescuing worn travellers.

Then followed a discussion on what the dogs are like — their size, colour, kind of coat, muscles, the speed with which they can move and the weight they can carry. Pictures were passed round the class of the hospice as it is to-day, of the dogs and of the St. Bernard monks. The children were given a graphic first-

hand description of the hospice. 'Is it the same word as hospital?' asked one child. 'Is it where sick people are cured?' 'Is it where shelter is given?' Joan then told a story she had read about a St. Bernard dog. Margaret told of a film which shows the dogs rescuing a man. Hilary said that she had a book at home with the story of St. Bernard and she would bring it to school for the next lesson. She also handed to the mistress a picture relating to a previous lesson, which was briefly discussed, and brought the lesson to an end.

The lower class went to their own room and the remaining children were divided into groups for arithmetic. The lesson began with a quick revision of the 'Short Methods' taken the previous day. The children had a conversational tone — 'You can tell if it's right, Miss W, if you add 10s. and 2s. 6d. that's 12s. 6d. — that's $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{8}$ for $\frac{5}{8}$ ', said Barbara. The more difficult examples were put to the quicker children. When a slower child was puzzled one of the others would say, 'Can I explain to her, Miss W?' or 'Miss W, if you ask her the other way it is easier'. The tone of the children was very friendly and there was freedom between the teacher and the children. Every child was working and every child seemed to have the measure of every other in the class. There was quick spontaneous laughter at ridiculous answers; the more intelligent children displayed waryness when posers were put and impossible questions were greeted with 'Oh, Miss W, it can't be done!' After this lively revision the class divided into groups, the 'a' division to work at problems and the 'b' division to have an oral lesson with the teacher. When in difficulties children in the 'a' group came out asking for help and the attitude towards their work was indicated by the way they put the question. It was nearly always 'Miss W, do you do No. 6 this way . . .?' rather than 'Please how do you do No. 6?' After a strenuous half-hour arithmetic books were put away, the children not taking milk went out with balls, ropes and lunch, while the rest remained behind. Everything in the classroom was very informal, some children sitting in their desks, others standing

in groups sharing their lunches. The conversation during this time showed the wide interests of these children.

From one group, 'Oh, Miss W, Enid's brought the model she made last night!' It was very good doll's house furniture, and all the children gathered round and showed great interest as Enid arranged the 'room'. The room was a shoe box one side of which was made to drop down and the furniture was made of cardboard.¹ Enid lived at a draper's shop and had plenty of cardboard to play with. It was her own design; she had never made one before and had not seen any instructions in a book. 'It isn't finished', she said. 'I have to paint a picture to go on the lid and put the instructions inside.' The children then started a discussion on making models.

Joyce, sitting all alone, looked up and said, 'Look, Miss W, Wat Tyler's dagger and a copy of Magna Charta. It's what we were talking about yesterday'. Miss W (busy writing on the blackboard), 'What is your book, Joyce?'

JOYCE Our Dorothy's library book. She lent it to me. Volume VII of Arthur Mee's Children's Encyclopaedia. There's a lot of things we've learnt about in this book.

MISS W (*still busy*) Read out to me what it says, Joyce.

JOYCE It's a picture museum of History. There's a picture of a dagger and it says under it 'the dagger with which Wat Tyler was killed'. Then there is a picture which says, 'The text of the Magna Charta'.

A group at the window watched the boys playing football. Another group watched and commented on the engine and six coaches that dashed along the railway line which can be seen from the classroom window. Then they counted the wagons of a goods train discussing how many one engine could pull (27 on this train) and following up by 'What's in the trucks, Miss W?' The milk had been finished by now, however, and all the children had to go out to allow windows and doors to be opened wide to freshen up the room.

¹ See Plate x, facing p. 142.

English followed break and the rest of the morning was devoted to written and oral work. There was free discussion of the use of words; examples of the right and wrong use of words were taken from the children's own work and the conversational tone that characterized the arithmetic period was also evident in this work. The children enjoyed the work which, though formal in character, gave them plenty to do, and touched on topics that they knew or characters they had read about. The children worked at their own speed; they did not consult one another and there was no copying; they had become self-reliant and preferred to tackle difficult work alone. This was shown by the way the children faced spelling difficulties; as in arithmetic most children say 'Is this how to spell —, please?' rather than 'How do you spell —, please?'

Children who finished the work written on the blackboard got out reading books or read the 'News Board'; one or two continued a similar exercise in a printed English exercise book. When all had finished children recounted episodes from the books from which the exercises had been taken until it was time to go home for dinner.

In the afternoon the children settled down quickly to a variety of occupations. Books of all kinds and sewing and knitting materials lay on the desks. The children were wearing bright blue casement sewing aprons which they had made the year before. They were all very intent on the work in hand; conversation was very free, mainly about the work, and children were borrowing and lending and helping one another in a friendly but well controlled manner. Each child progresses at her own rate and chooses her own work and many are able to follow complex patterns in knitting from written instructions. The children, therefore, were making different garments or reading or doing embroidery as they preferred. Below are notes on the work individual children were doing.

Enid

Enid was knitting mittens on four needles. She had just taken off the thumb. She picked up the thumb stitches by

herself. Directions for making the mittens were in a book on Miss W's table and she consulted this when necessary. One mitten was complete and fitted well but the other came out too small. After consulting the book, Enid found that she had used No. 14 needles for the second mitten instead of No. 12 which she had used for the first one. She decided to make another of each size and give the smaller pair to her younger brother. Enid is very fond of knitting and has made many things on two needles.

Betty

Betty was making a jumper. She chose her own pattern in a shop, bought it with her own money and worked from the book. The pattern was complex and she wrote down the rows on a slip of paper and ticked them off as she did them. She made an X where she hoped to get to during the afternoon. Betty is a capable little girl — she said that she helped two others to make socks, including turning the heel and grafting the toe (one of these two maintained that Betty only watched to see that she did not go wrong). Betty said that she bought '6 ozs. at 10d. an ounce and three coupons. That came to 5s. and there were no buttons to buy. The wool would just do it.'

Lilian

Lilian was making mittens. Her general intelligence is weak but she could say that she had 40 stitches on her needles. She was doing the cuff of the second mitten (k.1, p.1). One of the other girls had stitched up most of the first mitten but Lilian intended to stitch the second one up herself. Twelve months previously this child hardly ever spoke to anyone.

June

June was reading *In Trafalgar's Bay*, by Herbert Strang, quite oblivious of what was happening in the rest of the room. When asked about her book she said, 'It's a lovely story'. 'Would you rather read than knit?' June replied, 'I've just got to the exciting part and I want to finish it. I'm not doing any more knitting as I'm beginning sewing'.

Asked what knitting she had done she said, 'This red cardigan I'm wearing, my school mittens and my Sunday mittens on four needles, and I'm doing some socks. They are at home because I wanted to read my book to-day'.

Mary

Mary was reading *Fairy Story Shop*. She preferred to read than knit. Her knitting was quite good but she did not like doing it for long at a time. She had started socks on four needles. Mary's reading is not particularly good but she enjoys fairy stories.

Edna

Edna was making a Duchess Set. It is very special for her mother's birthday so she only does a little at a time. She drew out her own design and bought the material herself. She has made many socks and gloves, a pullover, a cardigan, four pairs of bootees for friends' babies; she has also knitted and stuffed six dolls for Christmas presents. She does all her work from printed instructions and said that she likes 'doing things with fancy patterns'.

Margaret

This child had been making a cookery cap (these children will start Domestic Science next year) and was reading poetry. In reply to 'Do you enjoy reading poetry?' she said, 'Yes, because it rhymes and it is easy to remember. The poems in this book have lovely descriptions, too'.

Kathleen

Kathleen had put her socks on one side and was learning her part in a play the children are intending to produce.

During this period natural, free conversation was going on all the time:

MISS W Jean, will you just show Lily how to start her heel, please?

EDNA In this morning's paper, Margaret, there's a lovely picture of a scarf and mittens. It only takes 6 ozs. so I'm

sending up for it. I've got the stamped addressed envelope to enclose.

YVONNE What paper is it in?

EDNA The *Sketch* — but don't send, Yvonne, you can borrow mine.

YVONNE All right. My Mummy sent up to the *Illustrated* or *Post* for a knitting-book and I'm doing a pair of socks from it at home.

This kind of conversation went on all through the lesson. Meanwhile, Miss W was showing groups of children (six at a time) how to make the cookery caps they will need for house-craft the following year.

This work was followed by music which the children thoroughly enjoyed. Many of them put music amongst their favourite lessons and quite a number have music lessons privately.¹

After break the children had physical training followed by dramatic work. Two plays were attempted. The properties were home-made; a child was stage manager, reading directions and arranging properties.

At four o'clock, after short evening prayers, the children said, 'Good afternoon', and gathered up their belongings for home. They made arrangements with one another about meeting in the evening for various out-of-school activities, about going home together, carrying one another's boxes, books, bags, etc. Seven netball enthusiasts stayed behind for a practice.

Some said 'Any jobs, Miss W, to-night?' Miss W. 'Yes, I'm going to do some duplicating.'

So the children put out the duplicator on the table, with paper, duster and other things and finally left the school.

The most noticeable things about this class are perhaps the spirit of co-operation and the honesty, with the teacher, with each other and with themselves. All the children are alive and active, the more intelligent children helping the less intelligent

¹ See Table 13, p. 228.

and not one child is overlooked or ignored by the others. Punishment consists of righting the wrong, there are no detentions, or 'lines' and no corporal punishment (it is hardly necessary to add). The children bring nature specimens to school, and they bring into school their experiences, whether films they have seen or radio programmes they have heard or just events at home.

Besides this classroom work there is much incidental training. The 'Leaders' of the physical training teams are responsible for apparatus which has to be used by the whole school. The leaders may delegate their duty to a member of their team but they must check up to see that the duty has been properly performed. The leaders are chosen by the form mistress each term. All children who show any promise are given an opportunity to lead — sixteen out of the class have so far held this office.

Two monitresses are chosen by the teacher every few weeks. The tasks consist of tidying cupboards, looking after books, collecting and distributing paper, etc., and keeping the Nature Table fresh and tidy.

News is displayed on a frieze which is built up week by week. Each week two children (in turn round the class) are the 'Reporters' and are responsible for collecting the chief items of news and mounting them on the frieze. The information may be in the form of pictures or newspaper-cuttings, or brief accounts written by the 'reporters' themselves. They also describe the news to the class, members of which can usually add to the discussion. This is an important feature of the training of this class, one aim of which is to rouse an interest in things that are going on in different parts of the world as well as in their own immediate environment.

There is a genuine attempt, too, to teach good manners. The children are expected to treat each other with the same respect that they give to the staff. Grammatical errors in speech and unpleasant voices are also checked and corrected — quite often children will correct one another in a friendly

manner which is not resented. In appearance, too, the children are expected to reach a certain standard of cleanliness and tidiness. Particular importance is given to nails and shoes. To use pins instead of buttons is considered a sign of laziness and children seldom come to school with anything that needs mending — should a button come off in school the child will ask for a needle and cotton at break. All this training is achieved incidentally. There are no direct lessons — example and practice being the methods employed.¹

It is perhaps, in this training in social standards that the school achieves its greatest success. But there has been some interesting work done in relation to classification for secondary education. The school is engaged in trying out individual record cards and the detailed study of classes at work as described above and an investigation into the out-of-school activities of the children has yielded much valuable information concerning their interests, hobbies and responsibilities. The tables on pages 228-231 give some indication of the width and direction of interests and pursuits during out-of-school hours.

For cumulative records this information is in the form of notes on each individual child. In that form it is of more value as an aid to the education of the children than are these tables which have been compiled from the individual records. The tables do, however, give a general picture of the background of the children and of the difference between the beginning and the end of the Junior School period.

The greater width of out-of-school activities and interest in radio and cinema programmes of the older children compared with the younger shown by the tables is to be expected. The apparent lack of interest in technicolor films is rather surprising and the relatively small interest in the Children's Hour is noteworthy. Some of the information regarding the younger children should not be taken as entirely reliable and no doubt some of the radio programmes are listened to more

¹ Cf. p. 80.

because the wireless is on in the room than because the children choose the programme. The relatively large number of children who have music lessons is very encouraging and the number

TABLE 13
OUT-OF-SCHOOL ACTIVITIES

I. *Types of Activities*II. *Number of Activities*

Type	Seven-year-old class (49)	Ten-year-old class (46)
Church Clubs	19	0
Play Centre	16	23
Skating	6	15
Piano Lessons	6	10
Violin Lessons (School)	6	0
Library Cards	5	16
Model Making	5	21
University Settlement	3	5
Dancing Lessons	2	6
Swimming	1	25
Brownies and Guides	0	12
Competitions in Periodicals	0	23

Number	Seven-year-old class	Ten-year-old class
0	17	1
1	11	6
2	10	6
3	6	11
4	5	9
5	—	2
6	—	7
7	—	4
Total number in class	49	46

The figures in the columns represent the number of children in each class who took an active part in particular activities out of school.

of ten-year-old children¹ who make models in the evening is a pleasing reflection on the attitude to school work that is aroused.

¹ See Plate x, facing 142.

TABLE 14
THE CINEMA

I. *Types of Films preferred*

Type of film	Seven-year-old class	Ten-year-old class
Comic	20	3
Dancing	9	6
Musical	6	2
Cowboy	5	1
Murder	2	10
Technicolor	2	2
Singing	1	1
Skating	1	5
News	1	0
Historical	—	2
Good Tale	—	2
Travel	}	4
Adventure		
Thriller		
Sea Stories	—	2
Children	—	2
Mystery	—	1
Love Stories	—	1
Silent	—	1
Any Type	—	7

II. *Number of Visits per week*

No. of visits per week	Seven-year-old class	Ten-year-old class
Very seldom	1	8
Occasionally	4	7
1	28	7
1 or 2	1	1
2	7	14
2 or 3	—	4
3	1	4
4	—	1
2, 3 or 4	1	—
4 or 5	1	—
5	—	—

The figures in the columns represent the number of children in each class who expressed a preference for a particular type of film and who visited the Cinema a certain number of times a week.

TABLE 15
HOME DUTIES

<i>Type of Duty</i>	<i>Seven-year-old class</i>	<i>Ten-year-old class</i>
Shopping	9	37
Washing up	3	23
Looking after younger children	3	5
Scrubbing or cleaning floors	3	4
Making beds	2	3
Cleaning steps	2	1
Laying table	1	3
Cleaning (general)	—	5
Dusting	—	4
Stairs	—	1
Keeping kitchen stove tidy	—	1
Lighting fires	—	1
Polishing stair rods	—	1
Cooking meals	—	1
None	38	6

The figures in the columns represent the number of children in the two classes who have set home duties.

Although in this school set-up there are not the opportunities for the development of hobbies and for the free choice of occupations as in the previous example, there are plenty of opportunities for the development of individuality and for

TABLE 16

RADIO PROGRAMMES

<i>Programmes</i>	<i>Seven-year-old class</i>	<i>Ten-year-old class</i>
Just William	21	43
Itma	6	42
Children's Hour	3	22
Paul Temple	3	36
Carol Levis	3	29
Variety Band-Box	1	32
Henry Hall's Guest Night	1	—
Appointment with Fear	1	—
Shipmates Ashore	1	—
News	—	30
Music Hall	—	29
Serials (e.g. Jane Eyre)	—	28
Sunday Services	—	24
Sunday Half-hour	—	19
Brass Bands Marches	—	17

The number of children in each class who enjoy particular programmes on the radio.

learning to live in a community. This is achieved within the classroom rather than in the school as an entity, owing to the dispersed nature of the accommodation. The responsibility, therefore, falls largely on each individual teacher who has to

create in her class the atmosphere and environment that will ensure freedom and encourage the development of individuality while at the same time maintaining the formal set-up. That this is achieved by the teachers of the two classes described is proved by the children themselves, who, at the age of eleven, enter the phase of post-primary education as responsive and responsible young citizens.

V. VARIOUS EXPERIMENTS

A. SUBJECT DAYS¹

A FEW months ago an experiment was tried on a very small scale in giving whole days to different subjects. The idea arose through a consideration of the problem raised in Chapter IV, p. 86, regarding the classification of knowledge into subjects. It is pointed out in that chapter that knowledge acquired through an activity approach tends to be focused on topics and that at some time during Primary School life this knowledge must be classified into subjects.

This can be done in a variety of ways. In the school described in Part II, Section II, the subject classification is never entirely broken down; in the school in Section III the subjects are introduced as such in those periods given over to what is called syllabus work. In the experiment described now it was decided to try out a time-table drawn up along the lines of a subject a day. Since the number of subjects out-numbers the number of school days in a week such a time-table may cover seven or eight days. Many schools already use a six-day time-table.

The first purpose was to find out whether such a programme would be practicable and to observe the reaction and response of children of ten years of age to daily programmes focused on different subjects. In the preliminary try-out three subjects only were chosen, namely, geography, arithmetic and nature study, all of them being subjects in which the teachers who were to carry out the work were particularly interested.

The school is in a residential suburban area. Built in 1933 it is a modern veranda type of building with classrooms too small for present-day methods of teaching but with good playing-fields both in front and at the back. The school faces a park to the south and a railway runs along one side of the playing-field at the back so that there is a wealth of interest in the immediate

¹ Cf. p. 86.

vicinity of the school for work in both geography and nature study. The railway, however, which is on an embankment, making observation of the commodities inside the trucks difficult, was not used directly for the work in geography; the park, on the other hand, formed the nucleus of the nature study scheme.

Each subject was approached through some point of interest in the children's experience and while the main subject remained uppermost all the time, other subjects played a part in the day's work. In practice, therefore, the method developed into the study of three topics rather than three subjects, and there was probably some dissipation of energy and division of interest. Variety was introduced by visits and a balance between classroom and practical activities was maintained. Apart from religious instruction, music and physical training, which were taken at the normal time, the whole day was devoted to the one subject and the pursuits to which it led. Geography was taken on Tuesday, nature study on Wednesday and arithmetic on Thursday. There were several difficulties. One of the teachers became ill and the class had to be taken by the Head Mistress who was frequently called away and unable to give the time to the work that was needed; the plan could only run for five weeks; both children and teachers were unfamiliar with the centre of interest method of approach. In spite of this some very good work was done but the results must be looked upon as indications of the possible reactions of the children and as suggesting lines for further investigation rather than as conclusive.

All three days were planned out on similar lines based on the very broad time-table given below:

Morning

9.15-10. 0	Scripture, Registration, Bank, etc.
10. 0-11. 0	Discussion of the day's work, visits, collecting information.
11. 0-11.10	Playtime — Milk.
11.10-12.10	Writing, sketching in notebooks, further visits if necessary.

Afternoon

2.0 -3. 0	Individual and group work.
3.0 -3.10	Playtime — Milk.
3.10-4.10	Individual and group work.

This allowed plenty of opportunity for children to visit libraries or the park or to go to the art and nature study rooms for special information.

Geography Days

INTRODUCTION. 'Our Rations' was the starting-point in geography. Close to the school is a branch of a well-known grocer which proved a very helpful source of information. A letter of introduction and explanation was sent to the manageress of the store and another to the librarian of the local branch of the Public Library; both manageress and librarian were interested and gave all the help they could. The children were told of the proposed change from the ordinary time-table lessons and the topic to be studied was mentioned with a view to collecting pictures, books, cigarette cards or any other sources of information that the children could find. During the week-end the teacher prepared a number of cards to guide the weaker members of the class, for example:

T E A

What is it?

What is it made from?

Where does it grow?

Find out about the places and people who live there.

COURSE OF THE WORK. The teacher began with a short talk about the things likely to be found in a grocer's shop. This led to a class discussion, rations, and choosing commodities for study. Most of the children chose different commodities, but a few

wished to join up into groups and these needed the guide cards to set them off. The children were keen and enthusiastic and in a very little time were looking through the geography books, periodicals and pamphlets loaned by the children themselves, the staff and various other people. The children were given complete freedom to follow their own lines of working; some took down notes in a rough notebook before writing up the work; others entered everything directly into the special books they had been given for the work; three went into the art room to draw pictures they had found and others went to the school library to search for information.

The information collected on the first day was mainly on the nature of the commodity selected for study — what it looked like, what sort of a plant it was and so on. This material was put into books (interleaved tracing-paper and ruled) together with any sketches or pictures of the commodity. The goods that were studied included marmalade (involving both sugar and oranges), rice, spices, tinned salmon, cocoa, tea and butter — altogether eighteen different commodities were studied by the class.

The next stage was concerned with the place of origin of the goods. This involved much reference to geography books and atlases and the children became very enthusiastic over map-making. Making maps of the world and of particular countries occupied much time. One child studying rice produced five maps, Asia, India, English railways (showing how rice is carried across England), the Manchester Ship Canal and the 'World's Rice Lands'; and besides this he drew two small pictures and several diagrams. A child studying marmalade drew a map of the world showing sugar-producing areas, another of England showing transport and a third of Africa showing the orange areas. But this child seemed to prefer pictures to maps, his collection of illustrations consisting of a 'Section of Sugar-cane', 'Cutting Cane', the section of an orange, and sugar refining drawn by himself and four prints of sugar and orange production. The child studying tinned salmon had four maps, six pencil

drawings and two prints in her book. Towards the end of the work this child became interested in different kinds of boats and if the work could have been carried on longer it seems probable that she might have developed this interest and made a detailed study of ocean transport. Some of the less able children fell far short of these achievements. One boy, for example, studying jam only succeeded in producing one map and two small pencil sketches, while the work of another boy had no illustrations of any kind. The table below shows the number of children who produced different numbers of illustrations of different types.

TABLE 17

<i>Type of Illustration</i>	<i>Number of Illustrations</i>															
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
Pictures	7	5	5	3	5	4	2	2	1							
Prints	12	8	6	1	4	3										
Maps	4	5	6	12	4	1	0	1	0	0	1					
All Types	1	3	1	1	2	2	5	1	5	4	3	2	2	1	0	1

From this table it would appear that making of maps was more popular than drawing pictures, but the numbers are too small to be anything but suggestive of a possible and interesting line of investigation.

The visit to the Grocer's Shop roused great interest in the packing and transport of the commodities and it was from this expedition that the maps of trade routes round the world and railway lines in England developed. It also led to work in arithmetic, the children realizing that the goods were received by the grocer in bulk and had to be weighed out for sale in the shop or into ration quantities. Most of the children compiled price lists and found out the quantities and weights in various boxes and such problems as 'What would be the amounts and

cost of rations for two people?' or 'What goods could be bought for twenty points and what would be their cost?' were tackled.

The work in art and handwork included making models in paper, cardboard and clay, warehouses and storehouses for a model of the ship canal and railways to convey the goods from the docks to the main lines and stations. Goods for a grocer's shop in school were collected and signs for the shop were drawn out in large lettering on sheets of paper.

COMMENTS ON THE WORK. The children were very eager to bring books, pictures and other information to school. Some of the less intelligent who were unable to concentrate long on any one task tended to attach themselves to a group of more able children. One child of very weak intellectual capacity wandered from group to group without settling down to anything in particular until he discovered the coloured pictures of children in *Peoples of Other Lands*. These books seemed to fascinate him and he spent some time looking through them.

The more intelligent children showed great powers of discrimination in selecting books from which to collect material. Those books which described commodities in a biographical or conversational form were discarded, the children finding it too difficult to extricate the required information. Atlases and quite advanced textbooks, however, were eagerly sought after, children preferring to wait until books being used by others were available rather than waste time in searching through more childish works.

Children also discovered for themselves that it would take too long to follow all the avenues opened up by their subjects and that it would be necessary to condense and limit some aspects of the work and concentrate on a few lines of development.

Making maps, pictures and diagrams occupied most of the time. Table 17 on p. 237 shows that the number of pictorial illustrations produced was greater than the number of maps, although more children produced some kind of map than produced drawings. One or two children, the most notable

being boys, produced very interesting work showing the story of the commodity from its cultivation to the grocer's shop by a series of maps.

The teacher summed up the try-out in these words: 'While having many good points this method of study seems too advanced for children at this stage. They have not sufficient knowledge to follow lines of thought given by the teacher and when unsuccessful are at a loss how to proceed.' As a first attempt at work along these lines, however, the results are not discouraging.

Arithmetic Days

INTRODUCTION. The work in arithmetic centred round cricket. The boys had recently become very eager to form a cricket team in the school and it was thought that scores, journeys to matches and other aspects of the game might provide good material for calculations.

Letters were sent to the secretaries and captains of the teams to be challenged and a considerable amount of English entered into the first stage of the work through discussing arrangements, confirming dates and deciding the team.

THE COURSE OF THE WORK. Planning the pitch gave opportunities for measuring and surveying. Four areas were measured — a grass field in front of the school, a lawn enclosed by two wings of the building, the playing field at the back and the gardens. Plans of these were drawn in notebooks involving drawing to scale and the accurate use of rulers. The scales used were:

- 1 mm. = 1 yard
- 1 small square ($\frac{1}{4}$ inch) = 1 yard
- 1 inch to 10 yards

Measurement of the playing field which is triangular gave an excellent opportunity for teaching methods of finding the area of such a shape.

For out-of-door measurement a tape was used but during the

proceedings it snapped and the children had to devise another measure. They finally used rope which they had measured off into ten-yard lengths. At first the children called this a 'chain', but when some doubt arose as to the accuracy of this idea the length table was looked up and the correct length of a chain discovered. Measuring these areas led to a consideration of which parts of the grounds would be suitable for races on Sports Day which was not far distant. Courses of 100 yards, 80 yards and 50 yards were planned out of doors but not transferred to the plans in the children's books.

Interest in measurement was stimulated by this work and plans of the school hall and classrooms were made. This was extended even to the school of the visiting team.

Representatives of the class were chosen to visit the school to make contact with the team and to confirm the final arrangements. These children brought back measurements of the size of the hall and one of the classrooms, the height of the classrooms above the ground (the school is on the first floor of a big building), and the height of the tallest and shortest boys in the team. Other measurements that fitted into the work were the length of the stumps, the distance apart of the stumps and the length of the bails, the pitch and the length of the bowler's run.

Other arithmetic was connected with scoring. Score sheets were drawn out and most of the boys kept the score during the match. Comparison was made between the results of different matches and calculations of average numbers of runs, total scores, number of overs, analysis of 'How Out', and bowling averages were made. Other calculations were connected with the cost of the journey, refreshments and the circumference and weight of the ball.

The children became interested in various aspects of the game such as lives of famous cricketers, the history of cricket and the origin of the ball. Information about cricketers was obtained chiefly from cigarette cards, and the cork and rubber used in making the ball were studied from books used in the

geography work. The boy interested in the history of cricket was unfortunately handicapped by the lack of information in the history books. This is a good illustration of the importance of supplying a wide variety of books and encyclopaedias in every school to ensure that a child is not frustrated in his search for knowledge. The weather, too, came in for study and the temperature was taken and recorded with interest especially during the week of the match.

COMMENTS ON THE WORK. On the whole this work did not provide as much material and interest as might have been expected. The numbers in the calculations were so small that they did not tax the children's arithmetical ability at all. On the other hand the variety of calculations required gave good practice in the application of arithmetic to everyday problems and the fact that the numbers are small merely indicates that there is little need to harass children with large numbers in arithmetic teaching.

An attempt to widen the interest to matches at Lord's failed and as soon as the results of the school match had been calculated the children's interest flagged. The work in areas was good but lack of reference books prevented a development of the topic into wider fields.

Nature Study Days

INTRODUCTION. The park just opposite the school was used as the starting-point for nature study. The teacher went round the park and enlisted the help of the park keeper before talking the work over with the children. The park keeper was very helpful in supplying information about laying out the beds. The general plan was that on the first day the class would go round the park, then divide into six groups, each group working on different aspects of nature seen in the gardens.

THE COURSE OF THE WORK. Some general information was obtained during the first visit to the park. The children talked to the keeper and one of the gardeners and found out the size of

different parts such as the bowling green, the tennis courts and the children's playground. They also found out the date when the land was acquired and when it became a park and they made notes about the buildings and staff.

The weather was too cold for the children to stay long in the grounds so they returned to school and selected the topics that should be studied. Six groups were formed.

Group 1. The Bowling Green

The turf — the woods surrounding it — the history of the game — the size of the green — pests and insects that the gardeners have to know about.

Group 2. The Trees of the Park

The different kinds — sketches of trees — study of trees from reference books.

Group 3. The Tennis Courts

History of the game — measurements of the courts — the tennis racquet — animal and insect life round the courts — the shale surface of the courts.

Group 4. The Flowers

Names of the flowers — descriptions and drawings — soil — fertilizers — cost of making the Rose Bed.

Group 5. Birds in the Park

The birds seen — their nests — use of reference books to find out habits — birds' eggs — drawings of birds.

Group 6. Weeds and Wild Flowers

Collected and sketched — use of reference books.

There was clearly much material to work on and openings for plenty of work in history, geography, arithmetic and nature but unfortunately the scheme never developed beyond a somewhat formal and unrealistic study of birds and butterflies. This was due, partly to the absence of the teacher who was in charge of the work, partly to the short time available, school events such as sports, reducing still more the already too limited period, and partly to the bad weather which made outdoor work difficult.

The children were very interested in the work; they came to

school early, they visited the public libraries in the district and the leaders of the six groups planned out the work for each member of the group. The most popular occupations were measuring up the park and drawing flowers and trees. The children showed less interest in animal life and although quite extensive studies of birds and butterflies were made, most of the information was obtained from books rather than from observation in the park.

Nature in Literature attracted many children and passages of both prose and poetry were entered into their notebooks.

NOTE ON THE WORK. It was found during the course of the work that outdoor activities were not very successful if unaccompanied by the teacher. Too much time was spent on one job especially if it was one such as measuring in which the children were particularly interested. The reference books seemed to be rather too difficult and general for children of this age, with the result that information collected was sometimes irrelevant or whole passages were copied word for word from the books. The teacher trying out this piece of work felt the need for giving the children much guidance in collecting material and setting down notes.

The children were very keen and the quicker ones wanted to work overtime, spending lunch time, and wet playtimes collecting material and putting things into their notebooks. In her summing up, the teacher said, 'On the whole the general idea is a good one for children slightly older. Maybe it would help them later on to make better use of public libraries and reference and commercial libraries'.

The method was new to both teachers and children and from other experiments of this kind it has been found that children brought up on the freer and more individual lines are capable by ten years of age of using reference books and simple flora quite well. Even in this try-out the children covered a good deal of ground. Overleaf is an example of the work done in all three topics grouped into the 'subjects' of the time-table.

TABLE 18. SHOWING GROUND COVERED IN DIFFERENT SUBJECTS BY THREE CHILDREN

<i>Subject</i>		<i>A boy (intelligent)</i>	<i>A girl (intelligent)</i>	<i>A girl (below average)</i>
<i>English</i>				
Notes		6 Geographical topics	6 Geographical topics 4 Nature Study topics	6 Geographical topics (5 of them very short)
Descriptions		Visit to another school	Visit to another school Visit to a park	Visit to a park
Poetry		The Dream Ship	Merchant Men	Dandelions
Letters		—	—	Challenge to Cricket Match
<i>Arithmetic</i>				
Measurement		height of steps length } playing field width } length of hypotenuse	length } girls' ground width } length } hall of school width } visited	length } playing field width } length } gardens width } length } front lawn
Drawing to scale		Plan of playing field scale 20 yds. to 1 in.	Plan girls' playground scale 10 yds. to 1 in. School Hall scale 20 yds. to 1 in.	Front lawn (no scale given) Gardens (no scale and no measurements)
Areas		Playing field (area of triangle)	Girls' playground (rectangular) Hall (rectangular)	—
Tabulation		Score sheets (2) 'How out' analysis	—	Score sheets (3)
Averages		Av. distance run by 4 batsmen Average runs made (2)	—	—

Money	Cost of school visit Cost of refreshments	Cost of school visit	Cost of soap per month for the family (3)
<i>Geography</i> Commodities	Nutmegs and mace What they are, the plant, where grown, transport to Britain	Tinned salmon How caught and canned, where found, canneries, transport to Britain	Soap Coconut oil, olive oil, lin- seed oil, fats
Countries	E. Indies Climate, people, relief. Bor- neo, Java (unfinished)	Canada Occupations of the people British Columbia (general)	—
Maps	E. Indies Outline, climate (3) People (2) relief Vegetation World Areas of production and trade routes England — railways Route of school visit	British Columbia Salmon areas Canada Salmon areas World Temperate fishing areas World Transport of tinned salmon Route of school visit (great detail)	S. Africa Linseed areas
<i>Nature Study</i>	This boy did not do this work	Birds, swallow, sparrow, mistle-thrush, blackbird, sea gull Salmon	Dandelion
<i>Art</i> Geog. illustrations School visit illustrations Poetry illustrations Nature Study illustrations	3 2 1 —	2 — 4 7	7 — — 5

These examples of the work done show the variety of subject matter that each child studied and the difference in the ground covered by different members of the class. The table illustrates, too, the need for supplementing activity work with more formal lessons.¹ In arithmetic, for example, the number of plans drawn was too small to ensure facility in the use of a scale and additional measurements and drawings would need to be done by the children to give practice. Free expression in English was very restricted and many other examples can be found by a careful scrutiny of the table where the work done on 'subject' days would have to be supplemented by work done on the other days of the week.

It is through an analysis² of this kind that a check can be kept on the balance between the different subjects of the curriculum; for example, history has no place in the analysis, and only a very small amount of literature came in. The teacher would have to try and guide the work, therefore, along channels which would provide better opportunities for work in these subjects. Geography, on the other hand, has been very much in evidence and could well sink into the background for a time after the material collected by individual children had been drawn together and surveyed in one or two class lessons. In this particular school, since the plan was experimental and the end of term imminent, this phase was not reached.

B. ACTIVITIES AND INTERESTS

Experiments in free occupations and hobbies have been carried out for some years in an 'All Age' school and much material has been collected which, if analysed, should yield valuable information on the interests and abilities of young children.

The idea arose originally through experiences during evacuation when it was found that much real education was achieved during those sessions when the children were not

¹ Cf. pp. 60-63.

² Cf. p. 86.

officially 'in school' and during the evenings at play centres. The most important effect of these freer and more informal occasions seemed to be the emotional stability the children acquired and the Head Master determined to introduce something of the same nature in his school on its return from evacuation.

Activity periods form a feature of both senior and junior work. They differ from the activity periods described in Section II in that the school is not reclassified. The class unit is retained, the children in the class choosing the work they would like to do; hobbies and activities of all kinds, therefore, are carried on in the one classroom.

Each child is given as much freedom of choice as possible in the selection of a particular activity or hobby and in its planning and execution. He has to direct the work he chooses towards the particular purpose he himself has decided upon. From time to time the teacher may make helpful suggestions either with the object of directing effort along certain lines or in matters of technique but his main function is one of 'remote control' (to use the Head Master's expression), helping, encouraging and guiding so as to ensure progressive development. The responsibility thrown on each child for his own occupation tends to establish a general sense of responsibility for all his other work whether done in the class or in a group or individually. At the same time the periods provide opportunities for discovering powers and interests, for exercising and developing those powers and for applying them to other forms of occupation. Moreover, the keenness and persistence that characterizes the pursuit of an activity of his own choice tends to become habitual and to extend to other less enjoyable occupations. In this way standards of conduct and individuality of thought and action which become habitual during 'activities' periods tend to characterize the whole life of the school.

Two or three periods a week of about an hour are allotted to this work. Practices vary from teacher to teacher and from time to time. Sometimes, for example, materials and apparatus

of different kinds are put out and the children take their choice within those limits; at other times the children are encouraged to bring occupations and games from home; sometimes an activity begun by one or two children so attracts others that a large proportion of the class may become engaged in it; or again a few children may join together for some co-operative piece of work like the production of a play or the making of a big model. In its early stages the work was more in the nature of an activity approach to formal lessons with the class as the unit. This gradually broke down, however, and now individual or group work characterizes these periods.¹

It was felt that the value of these activities would be greatly increased if careful records were made of each individual child's work. Two forms of records have been tried out. One kept by the teacher and one kept by each child. The teacher's record consists of a notebook arranged like a class register with the names of the children followed by a series of columns. The activity followed by each child is put into the column at the head of which is put the date. This method presents an interesting picture of the activities of the class and makes comparisons and adjustments easy. If it is to have any real value, however, the entries while being brief, should be sufficiently descriptive to indicate the interest or purpose that lies behind the work. For example, on one occasion three children occupied themselves with clay modelling. It is important to know also what objects they made, for while the selection of clay modelling as an occupation shows a common desire to use their hands the objects they made may indicate very divergent interests and use to which they preferred to put their manipulative skill.

The individual child's record is made on a sheet of paper headed with the child's name, his class and his age on a given date. After the free period each child jots down what he or she did. This method has greater value for the children themselves since it forces a child to review his work and brings to his notice any slackness, besides giving encouragement in the sense of

¹ See Plate XI *a* and *b*, facing p. 143.

achievement and progress that the record shows. Either method is useful in connection with individual cumulative records and in educational guidance.

An analysis of the records of a class of eight- and nine-year-old children is given in Tables 19 and 20, facing p. 148. The figures in the body of the table represent the number of weeks a pupil spent on a particular occupation or hobby (the weeks are not necessarily consecutive). The last column gives the number of different occupations a child engaged in during the period recorded. The bottom row represents the number of children who at one time or another engaged in the different occupations during the period.

A study of these tables yields some interesting information. Two boys, for example, are particularly fond of reading and if the record is to be of real value this fact should be followed up with a record of the kind of books chosen. The girls show less enterprise and individuality than the boys. Drawing and painting are more popular with the boys than with the girls while paper cutting and raffia work are more attractive to the girls than to the boys. A vast number of other points can be raised and many lines for further investigation can be opened up by an analysis of this kind. The mere making of a record takes much time and is of little value unless it is used as a means of providing a better education for each child and as a guide to future development.

The class record loses some of its value by not being sufficiently detailed — the entries, clay modelling, for example, need to be amplified — as do the 'Meccano' and 'reading' entries if they are to have full significance as a means of educational guidance. Nor do the tables show in what order or with what steady persistence a child may have pursued his activities. The individual type of record made by some children gives this greater detail. For younger juniors the method is rather slow and laborious though it can be accomplished quite easily in the form of a diary. The records of three ten-year-old children — two boys and a girl — are shown on pages 250-252.

TABLE 21

Age 10 years.	Name	(Boy)	Class
Nov.	Stamps - exchanging - atlas - sticking stamps in album Meccano - making Tommy gun and swing Book backing Word games - starting with certain letter Cigarette cards - putting them in an album Electric model making	Sketching a man Meccano - sword Meccano - tram controls Painting model house House meetings House meetings Making a puppet Making a puppet and elections ² Election ² meeting } Races - heats for sports day	May 4 6 11 13 June 3 8 10 15 17 22 24
Dec. 10	Christmas card making		
Jan. 4	Painting a poster	Meccano - Sten gun	June 6
Feb.	Making a puppet	Meccano - Sten gun Poems Poems	8 13 15
Mar.	Model of Semi ¹ Planning the model of a row } of houses Making the model of a row Making swords with Meccano Making swords with Meccano Making model aeroplanes		
April 1	Microscope - making slides		
13	Microscope - making slides		
15	Poster		
20	Microscope		
22	Microscope - drawing view } in microscope		
27	" "		
29	Sketching		

¹ Semi-detached House.² See pp. 267-276.

TABLE 22

Age 10 years. Name (Girl) Class

Nov.	Christmas cards Cut outs for paper dolls Knitting a kilt Book backing - a picture for books Tracing pictures for Christmas cards D'oyleys painted for cake stand Play-acting - Cinderella Dressing paper dolls Spelling Bees Pattern making Woollen pompons for jumper Making bedroom slippers - dancing socks Writing letters of alphabet - Reading Stamp swopping Post Office Games	Mar. 4 9 11 16 18 23 25	Woolly ball - making hats Drawing and painting Practising a play Writing a play. Painting d'oyleys English cards, sewing Drawing - Play Practising a Play
Dec. 10	Making and crayoning cards Clay modelling	April 13 15 20	Practising a Play Practising a Play Sewing a needle case
Feb.	Sewing doll's clothes Dressing dolls Arithmetic problems - Composition - English Drawing dolls Making calendars	June 20 July 6 8 13 15	Making flowers Mounting pictures Making flowers House Meetings A letter
12	Puppet show Knitting gloves Making doll's clothes		

TABLE 23

Age 10 years. Name (Boy) Class

Nov.	Stamp collecting - exchange and atlas Meccano - simple models Chemistry - experiment with test tubes Spelling bee - word sentences Jig saws - Silly Symphony Play acting - 'Robin Hood' Cards - 'Gulliver's Travels' Play reading - Forest Hospitality Squares - spelling game Encyclopaedia - reading Stamp collecting - exchange	May 1 8 15 22	Reading - encyclopaedia Reading - encyclopaedia Reading - encyclopaedia Meccano - making models
21 28	Foreign Stamps - exchange Stamps	June 5 12 19 26	Aeroplane - model making Aeroplane - model making House meeting Sports heats
Dec. 5 12	Encyclopaedia - reading Encyclopaedia - reading Stamps - catalogue Stamps	July 3 10 17	Reading - 'Sinbad the Sailor' Jumbled Towns - game Jumbled Towns - game
Jan. 4 9 16 23	Stamps - sticking in album Reading - magazines Encyclopaedia - reading		
Mar. 13 20 27	Lexicon - card game Lexicon - card game		
April 17 24			

These records are primarily of value in educational guidance during school life; but attempts are also being made to gauge the part the activities and interests play in vocational guidance and the reaction of the children to the freedom of choice given them under these methods. A little time ago the children were asked to write down their opinions about these free periods. Some children complained of the boredom that resulted from having nothing particular to do, and of the interference by those not fully occupied in the work of others, but on the whole there was general agreement that the periods were useful and interesting.

Another line of investigation has been the follow up of children after leaving school to find out how far the hobbies they pursued in school were significant in their choice of occupations later. The four examples given below show that these periods have given at least some children opportunities to develop 'bents' and interests which have led towards further education and careers, but investigation on a much larger scale is needed before it can be claimed that this is true for the majority of children.

Example 1. One boy showed great interest and skill in making and handling electrical models and while at school made up his mind that he would like to become an electrical engineer. He has actually achieved his object and is doing well.

Example 2. Another boy spent much time making models of different kinds, particularly toys. He was critical of the hobbies' periods because of the number of children in the class who could find nothing particular to do and interfered with his own work. He retained his interest in all occupations demanding manipulative ability, however, and has gone to a technical school.

Example 3. A third boy spent most of his free periods in reading and showed little interest in crafts of any sort; he would read anything connected with school subjects and greatly increased his general knowledge. He is now in a

Transport Office and is hoping to work for a University degree in a few years.

Example 4. The fourth boy found that his interest lay in chemistry, and is now engaged in working for a degree in that subject.

There are cases, too, of children suffering from some form of maladjustment expressed in school in truancy or other anti-social behaviour who have regained their balance through occupations they have been able to pursue during their free periods. Art has been a particularly valuable outlet for such children.

It is noticeable that these cases are all boys. There seems to be need for more thought to be given to girls' hobbies and occupations to ensure that they, too, will find an interest which can be turned to good account in their future careers, and develop in them that adventurous spirit that seems to be lacking.

There has been some attempt, too, to trace the development of particular activities. Here, for example, are the stages through which art has developed. It started by a child colouring prints in his own story book. This was followed by colouring drawings done by himself during one of these free periods; this in turn led to the collecting of his paintings either in a loose cover or in a drawing book. Later picture books were made for a younger brother or sister or for the children in the Nursery class, and picture reading books for the Infants. Then followed frieze making and the painting of Christmas Cards and Calendars. After this a child would attempt really large pictures (2 ft. 6 in. by 3 ft. 6 in.) for the corridors. These pictures might be on any subject, imaginative, or illustrative, or they might be posters or designs. The work has recently developed into the mural painting activity illustrated in Plate xia.

A number of other questions are exercising the minds of the staff of this school in relation to hobbies and interests such as 'Over a period do a child's activities shadow forth some

suggestion of a real and particular interest worth developing further?' or 'What constitutes a "profitable" occupation?' These and other questions are thrown out from time to time by the Head Master and through them an inquiring attitude towards methods and work in school which alone ensures real progress in education, is maintained.

C. RELIGIOUS INSTRUCTION AND ART¹

On page 96 there is a copy of a free time-table used in a Primary School for children of 3 to 11 years of age. In the Junior section of this school a teacher with particular interest in religious knowledge and considerable skill in art and craft has succeeded in infecting the children of her class with some of her own enthusiasm. This has resulted in a very happy combination of religious knowledge, art, craft and English.

The school is situated between a middle-class residential area on one side and an artisan locality on the other. There are many small private business concerns and branches of big stores lining the nearby thoroughfares which form the chief labour market for the locality. There is also an appreciable Jewish population in the district. The school, therefore, draws from types of societies which, though varied, have one characteristic in common, a keen interest in the education and progress of their children.

It might be thought that with the Jewish children in the school it would be difficult to bring religious knowledge into class activities and to link it with other subjects. This has not been found to be the case. There is, of course, no compulsion on any child to take part and in the first piece of work described below, which dealt with a topic related to the spread of Christianity, the Jewish children were not concerned. On the other hand in the two other activities not only did the Jewish children co-operate but they had much to contribute with their detailed and accurate knowledge of Old Testament stories.

¹ See p. 54.

Scripture Frieze

The story of St. Augustine bringing Christianity to Kent formed the basis of a piece of work carried out by a class of eight- and nine-year-old children of normal range of ability. The story was told during the Scripture period at the beginning of the morning and the teacher suggested that a frieze could be made out of the story for the classroom. The children fell in with this idea and discussed the story again with a view to finding out what parts could be illustrated. The result of this discussion was that the story was divided into eight sections focusing on the main incidents, namely:

- 1 Pope Gregory in the Market Place in Rome.
- 2 Pope Gregory commissions Augustine to travel to Britain to preach Christianity.
- 3 St. Augustine and his companions travelling across Europe.
- 4 Crossing the Channel.
- 5 Meeting King Ethelbert under Thor's Oak.
- 6 Augustine preaches at Canterbury and baptizes many people.
- 7 The people attend services at St. Martin's Church.
- 8 The King himself is baptized.

A group of eight children undertook to write one part of the story each. These versions were corrected for bad mistakes and later printed out carefully on papers in readiness for mounting on the frieze background. At the same time eight other children volunteered to paint a picture to illustrate the eight sections. Both groups of children were given complete freedom to express the incidents as they wished, though the painters studied pictures of monks so as to gain some idea of costume and both writers and painters referred to the teacher from time to time for odd points or information about the story, such as, for example, a name, or a sequence of events.

Three boys then mounted the pictures which had to be carefully trimmed, placed in their correct order, and fixed, straight and properly spaced, on the background. The corre-

sponding written account was mounted beneath each picture the completed frieze giving the story in serial form.¹ This stage of the work entailed careful measurement and neat manipulation of scissors and gloy brushes.

The children who made the frieze were nominated by the general consent of the class. The subject of each section of the story was written on a small piece of paper and the eight writers drew lots for the section they were going to write about. Similarly the painters arranged which incident each artist should paint.

The teacher's aim was to complete the whole activity as quickly as possible while the enthusiasm and interest of the children was at its height.² Only in this way could spontaneous and lively work be produced. For this reason the writing and painting followed straight on from the Scripture period into the usual work period. On the first morning the corrected versions of the eight episodes had been written and eight illustrations had been painted. The frieze was completed on the following morning. Eight of the best printers in the class were nominated to copy out the written descriptions while the three boys mounted the pictures. By the time the story had been printed the boys were ready to mount them also and the whole frieze was completed in about three hours spread over two days, about twenty-four children having taken part.

While these children were engaged in producing the story of St. Augustine the other members of the class continued their normal group work in the three R's. The time-table³ was very flexible and the class organized so that there should be the least possible delay in getting to work and the minimum of formality that might stifle the children's thoughts.

To achieve this paper, painting materials, reference books and so on were available in the classroom cupboard for the children to take whenever required. The painters, too, were free to go wherever they liked to do their painting provided that they did not interfere with the work of other classes or

¹ See Plate XIII, facing p. 145.

² Cf. pp. 41, 50.

³ See p. 96.

other children in their own class. Many prefer to work on the floor either in their own room or in the hall¹ and when the majority of the class is painting the desks are pushed out of the way or arranged in groups. So familiar are the children with this informal organization that the coming and going of members of the class does not reduce the concentration of other children or interfere with their work.

Scripture Story Books

Another experiment was made with the same class of eight- and nine-year-old children in making Scripture story books. Each child had his or her own book in which stories told during the Scripture period were retold in the child's own words and illustrated.

This was a more formal class occupation. The books were made during a craft period. They consisted of kitchen paper, folded and cut to form the pages of the book and fastened to the cover with a plaited raffia cord. The cover, also of kitchen paper was decorated with a design printed with a potato stamp during art lessons.

The stories at the time when these books were being used were mainly about Moses and the retelling of the story was usually done during the Scripture period on the day following the telling of the narrative. Sometimes free illustrations were done of a chosen incident in the story instead of writing about it. Some children found a certain difficulty in expressing themselves easily in writing and they quite frequently turned their books into a series of illustrations with only a few sentences. Others who enjoyed writing produced quite long narratives illustrated with one or two sketches.

Interest in these books lasted for many months and although the books were produced by the class as a whole complete freedom was allowed each child both in the cover design and in the written and illustrative matter that filled them.

¹ See Plate xii**b**, facing p. 144.

A Scripture Puppet Play

A Scripture puppet play was produced with the same class the following year. The children, therefore, were nine- and ten-year-olds and were prepared to make their Scripture stories live. In this piece of work all the children played a part in one way or another and the whole activity took much longer and introduced a greater variety of subjects than either of the other two.

The work sprang from the story of Naaman, the Syrian. As before, the story was told during a Scripture period and, following her usual custom, the teacher threw out some suggestions at the end of the lesson as to how the story could be followed up. The suggestion that the children might make a puppet play round it was received with great enthusiasm.

The next morning the story was discussed with a view to deciding upon scenes. Three scenes were planned by the children: the first was to be a conversation between Naaman's wife and the Jewish slave girl, the second was to show Naaman seeking a cure for his leprosy from Elisha, and the third scene was to depict Naaman's home-coming. Five characters were introduced: Naaman and his wife, the Jewish slave girl, a soldier of Naaman's retinue and Gehazi (Elisha's servant) and it was decided that an 'Announcer' would be needed to take the place of a programme.

The children then began to read the story in groups until they became familiar with the language used in the Bible. There was some difficulty over language. In previous puppet plays the children had used their own words, making up the dialogue as they acted within the framework of the story. But in this Bible story the teacher felt that the children's everyday speech did not seem in keeping with the subject and Biblical phraseology was introduced. The effect of this was to produce a rather stilted dialogue having the quality of parts of a written play learnt by heart. To off-set this, little incidents of family life were introduced which brought the Bible story closer to

the children's experience and gave opportunities for spontaneous and lively conversation.

While the action of the play was developed other children set to work to make the puppets. The boys made the heads out of papier mâché and the girls made the clothes from scraps of material in the school rag-box, pictures brought by the teacher and children providing information on costume. This part of the work took one or two weeks.

One boy of special creative ability undertook to paint the scenes, using a picture he had discovered as the basis of his work; one girl with good dramatic ability succeeded in getting real feeling into the part of Naaman's wife and creating a real personality. The Jewish children contributed much, too, through their sense of colour. Every child had some part to play in the production.

Art, craft, applied art, English (written, spoken and read) needlework, speech training and geography all entered into the production of the play.

The dialogue was discussed and drawn together by the class as a whole but it never became set. Each time the play was performed the words would be slightly different but the children always kept near to the narrative and used the Biblical turn of phrase when the particular incident demanded it. The version given below is therefore only approximately correct, but it shows the general level of English that was used.

NAAMAN, THE SYRIAN

(A PUPPET PLAY)

Announcer: Hullo, everybody. We are going to give you a little puppet play about Naaman, who was cured of his leprosy.

(The first scene takes place in Naaman's house)

NAAMAN'S WIFE (*weeping*) Oh dear, oh dear! Whatever shall I do? My lord Naaman is suffering from this terrible disease called leprosy. Oh dear, oh dear!

(Enter Maid)

MAID Mistress! Why are you crying? Are you ill?

WIFE No, I am not ill, thank you.

MAID Has anything happened that makes you cry so?

WIFE Yes. My husband, Naaman, is suffering from the terrible disease leprosy, from which there is no cure.

MAID No cure?

WIFE No cure whatsoever, my child. He has led his armies into battle and brought them home victorious. He will now have to leave his armies, his friends, his home and his wife.

MAID I am very sorry to hear that, my lady. Would to God my lord were with the Prophet in my own land of Israel. He would *surely* cure him of his illness. He can cure anybody. Why, once he even brought the dead back to life again!

WIFE Who is this prophet that you speak so well of?

MAID He is a prophet of our God and his name is Elisha.

WIFE If he is what you tell me, send a message to my lord Naaman and tell him that he should leave on a visit to this prophet without delay.

MAID Yes, mistress.

(Jewish Maid exits)

WIFE *(talking to herself)* No, I'm afraid it is no use at all. Surely this prophet cannot be as clever as my maid says. Naaman has already been treated by all the doctors in Syria and not one of them can cure him. Anyhow, we shall soon see what will happen.

(Enter Maid)

WIFE You have sent the message?

MAID Yes, mistress. A soldier took the message and brought immediate answer.

WIFE Good, let us go to the window and watch them start their journey. Look! There they are. They are mounting their horses and my lord is entering the chariot. He waves his hand. Good-bye!

MAID Good luck and farewell.

(They both wave their hands)

WIFE *(slowly turning from the window)* They are gone! And may the God of Israel go with them, for I have no longer faith in the gods of Syria.

(Exit Naaman's wife and the Jewish Maid)

Announcer: Scene Two takes place outside the prophet Elisha's house.

NAAMAN This must be the prophet's house. Go, call him. Tell him that Naaman, Captain of the King of Syria's host, wishes to speak with him.

SOLDIER Ho, there!

NAAMAN Call again, louder.

SOLDIER Ho, there! 'Tis the mighty Naaman who calls you. He wishes to speak to the prophet Elisha on important business.

(Enter Gehazi from Elisha's house)

NAAMAN Art thou the prophet?

GEHAZI No, my lord. But what message should I take to him? I am only his servant.

NAAMAN Tell him that Naaman, Captain of the King of Syria's host, demands attention. Tell him that I seek a cure for this leprosy of mine. With me I have brought many camels and mules laden with every kind of wealth. It is a present for him when he makes me clean.

GEHAZI Very well, my lord.

(Exit Gehazi after bowing low)

(Naaman and the soldiers whisper to each other until Gehazi returns)

NAAMAN Ah, the prophet comes!

GEHAZI Nay, my lord, the prophet Elisha does *not* come but bids me tell you that you must wash in the River Jordan seven times and that will make you clean.

NAAMAN What! He bids me wash in the River Jordan! He, this miserable unknown prophet! Are not the rivers of Damascus far better than this miserable River Jordan? Ho, there, men! Bring me my chariot. I am not going to waste any more time round this place. Every man to his horse!

SOLDIER My lord!

NAAMAN Be gone. Take your place.

SOLDIER Just a moment. Maybe there is some strange mysterious power which the prophet alone knows of that when you are in the water it may make you clean.

NAAMAN There is wisdom in what you say, my man. I will do the prophet's bidding and I hope the power of all Israel's

God will enter into the waters with me. Come, I see the sun shining on the water. Let us go down to the river's edge.

(Naaman steps into the water and slowly disappears)

NAAMAN I am clean! I am clean!

(Soldier gazes down at Naaman and nods his head in approval. Exit Soldier)

Announcer: Scene Three takes place in Naaman's house.

NAAMAN'S WIFE *(looking out of the window)* We have been waiting weeks for them, and they have not yet returned. But look! Look! Is that them coming over there down the hillside?

MAID *(happily)* Yes, it is. They are entering the city. They are entering the courtyard of the house.

WIFE Yes, and now they see us. They are laughing and waving.
(Wife and Maid wave their hands)

I wonder what the news will be?

MAID Hark! Isn't that them talking on the stairs?

WIFE Yes, it is. I recognize my lord Naaman's voice.
(Voices off stage: Won't the children be pleased?)

NAAMAN Are you there, wife?

WIFE Yes, I am here.

NAAMAN I am clean. I washed myself seven times in the River Jordan and I was made clean. At first I refused to do the prophet's bidding but a far wiser man than I gave me his good advice.

(The Soldier and Naaman bow to each other)

WIFE I am so glad. Fancy you having to do what someone else tells you.

NAAMAN Well, never mind. I must go and give the children their toys.

WIFE No, no! They are fast asleep in bed. They were asleep a long time ago.

MAID It would be a shame to wake them.

NAAMAN Oh well, I must wait until the morning. For you, wife, I have brought you a new pair of sparkling ear-rings.

WIFE Oh, thank you very much. I've always wanted a pair like these. How beautiful! What have you brought for the children?

Announcer: Scene Two takes place outside the prophet Elisha's house.

NAAMAN This must be the prophet's house. Go, call him. Tell him that Naaman, Captain of the King of Syria's host, wishes to speak with him.

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NAAMAN There is wisdom in what you say, my man. I will do the prophet's bidding and I hope the power of all Israel's

VARIOUS EXPRESSIONS

God will enter into the waters with me. Come, let us go down to the river's edge.

(Naaman steps into the water and slowly disappears)

NAAMAN I am clean! I am clean!

(Soldier gazes down at Naaman and nods his head in approval. Exit Soldier)

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WIFE Yes, and now they see us. They are laughing and waving.
(Wife and Maid wave their hands)

I wonder what the news will be?

MAID Hark! Isn't that them talking on the stairs?

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(Voices off stage: Won't the children be pleased?)

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(The Soldier and Naaman bow to each other)

WIFE I am so glad. Fancy you having to do what someone else tells you.

NAAMAN Well, never mind. I must go and give the children their toys.

WIFE No, no! They are fast asleep in bed. They were asleep a long time ago.

MAID It would be a shame to wake them.

NAAMAN Oh well, I must wait until the morning. For you, wife, I have brought you a new pair of sparkling ear-rings.

WIFE Oh, thank you very much. I've always wanted a pair like these. How beautiful! What have you brought for the children?

NAAMAN A toy chariot for little David and some necklaces and bracelets for the girls.

WIFE They will be pleased.

NAAMAN Come hither, little maid. I can no longer keep you a captive in my house. I have brought you the finest linen robe I could buy. I can promise you that never again will the soldiers of Syria come down and fight your people.

MAID Oh, thank you, my lord. You are very kind. I wonder if my mother will recognize me, it is such a long time since she saw me.

WIFE I think it is time we all went to bed. I am very tired and I'm sure you must be after your long journey.

NAAMAN AND WIFE Good night.

NAAMAN Wait a moment. I want to say this. From henceforth there shall be no other gods in this house but the Lord Jehovah.

MAID Good night.

SOLDIER Good night.

(Exit first Naaman and his wife, followed by the Maid and the Soldier)

Announcer: That is the end of our play and thank you very much for listening.

Good-bye everybody.

D. THE STORY OF WRITING

It is fitting that the 'Story of Writing' should take the form of a book, and that is what ten-year-old children in a Girls' School are engaged in doing.

There are 53 children of very mixed ability in the class; attendance during the year has been very poor and there have been many interruptions. The children, therefore, have not reached the end of the story, but as the teacher will go up with the class the story can be completed next year. Fixed periods are arranged for the work but the time can be extended or curtailed should the development of the topic demand it.

Each child is making her own book of some ten chapters, and contributing to a classroom frieze. The general pattern of the

books is the same but the children draw up their own alphabets and make up their own sentences in hieroglyphics.¹

The children in this school grow up in an environment of colour, so that it is not surprising to find colour and art reflected in the children's books. Handwork, geography, history and literature also play an important part in the development of the topic.

Chapter I consists of writing during the Stone Age. The children have made up their own picture-writing and picture-messages that might be sent from one tribesman to another. Chapter II is writing in Ancient Egypt. This brings in the development of an alphabet from pictures and the use of pen and ink on paper. The children have used hieroglyphics to write various words such as their own names or the names of places and people they know. In Chapter III the cuneiform writing of Babylonia is described and used and the growth of the cuneiform alphabet from pictures is illustrated, the children having made up their own pictures and modified them until they have become symbols.

The Phoenician writing and alphabet forms the subject of the fourth chapter. This gives an opportunity for discussions on the voyages of the Phoenician merchants which led to the introduction of the alphabet into Greece. Chapter V, therefore, deals with the Greek language and the beginning of books. Literature, therefore, has a prominent place in this section of the work and geography, which had been important in the earlier chapters, is less in evidence.

Roman books and writing and their influence on our own language occupies Chapter VI. In this chapter, too, the change from the parchment roll to the codex form of book is traced. Chapter VII describes the use of monasteries and the life of the scribes and provided opportunities for art in illuminating letters. The children have now reached the invention of printing in the Story of Writing and the development of the printing press and block printing.

¹ See Plate XIVa, b, c, facing p. 146.

The width of interest and variety of experience and activity that this topic presents is clearly very great. Besides the art and handwork achieved in individual books and in the classroom frieze (which involved not only art but writing, paper-cutting and picture-making with gummed paper) there are obvious opportunities for potato, rubber or lino printing, for simple bookbinding and other interesting activities.

The countries of Egypt, the Land of Two Rivers and the routes across the Mediterranean Sea bring in geography. History, of course, is the background of the whole piece of work; not only the story of writing, but life in ancient Egypt, Babylonia, Phoenicia, Greece and Rome cover a very wide historical field. The Greek legends and the Bible itself give plenty of scope for the study of literature and the openings for creative writing for the children are unlimited.

The environment, too, introduced by visits to printing works and the children's own efforts towards acquiring skill in the mechanics of writing and the value of written language as a means of communication and self-expression help to make the Story of Writing a topic of natural interest to children of nine or ten years of age.

VI. EXPERIMENTS IN CITIZENSHIP

A. ELECTIONEERING

IT is difficult in a school covering the whole age range from three to fourteen to give to the younger children much opportunity for direct practical experience of the responsibilities associated with community life. School offices naturally and properly go to the older pupils but in a school organized as a miniature society Junior and even Infant children may take an active part in school government.

The work described below is carried on in an 'All Age' school of about 350 children. The school is organized into three sections — a Nursery Infant section consisting of one Nursery and two Infant classes, a Junior section of three classes and a Senior section of three classes. In spite of difficulties and shortage of staff this organization has been maintained throughout the war by means of part-time teachers and by the Head Master taking over a class himself.¹

The school stands at the boundary between two towns both densely populated with no appreciable thinning of population as one town merges into the other. The pupils, therefore, are drawn from two administrative areas. The district, however, is uniform in character, most of the children coming from good working-class homes; hence, although there is the usual range of intelligence characteristic of any community there is considerable uniformity of social background. It is the type of district, too, in which great interest is taken in current affairs and in national and local government and the young people passing out of the school are quickly caught up into the life of the community and called upon to play their part in moulding the life of the country.

A setting of this kind makes the need for some form of training

¹ Cf. p. 90.

in citizenship imperative, and the House System is made the basis of such training. There are three houses, Rangers, Rovers and Seekers. Each house is run by two captains (one boy and one girl), two vice-captains (one boy and one girl) and a committee all elected by the house members. The election of captains and vice-captains is made an important event in the school and the occasion of putting into practice the constitutional procedure used in national elections. All children from six years of age upwards take part. General elections are held periodically and by-elections two or three times during the year as vacancies are created by older scholars leaving school.

In February, 1945, ten vacancies had to be filled: Rangers House needed a girl captain, a girl vice-captain and a boy vice-captain; Rover House needed all four officers, girl and boy captains and girl and boy vice-captains; and Seekers House needed a girl captain and two vice-captains. In October of the same year four officers were needed, in May the following year five vacancies had to be filled. The children, therefore, become really familiar with election procedure and should have no difficulty in using their right to vote when the time comes for them to take part in national and local elections.

Preliminary notices are put up in the school corridors consisting of a 'Writ of Election' and the rules of captainship of the houses. The writ issued for the February elections read as on page 269.

Nominations

A few days are allowed to elapse before the next step in the elections is taken. During this time the children decide who to put forward for nomination and election. When the nomination lists are put up many children are ready to put forward candidates for election. Originally short lists of those considered by the staff to be suitable candidates were offered to the children who then nominated from these lists. Now as the children become more capable and the staff more confident of the value of

WRIT OF ELECTION

CONSTITUENCY OF SCHOOL

NOTICE is hereby given
that
in the three WARDS
of

RANGERS

ROVERS

SEEKERS

ELECTIONS will be held for the appointment of
CAPTAINS and VICE-CAPTAINS

NOMINATION DAY 20. 2. 1945 (Tuesday)

POLLING DAY 23. 2. 1945 (Friday)

Given under our hand this 16th
day of February in the year of our
Lord 1945

Signed:

Acting Town Clerk

The Acting Town Clerk will be in attendance at the
(TOWN) HALL between 2-3 p.m., on TUESDAY, 20th
FEBRUARY to receive NOMINATIONS and Candidates'
DEPOSITS. House Meetings can be held by arrange-
ment

The second notice bore the following information:

RULES OF CAPTAINSHIP

A good CAPTAIN must be

- 1 A good leader
- 2 A good sport
- 3 A good worker
- 4 A good example
- 5 Obedient, willing, pleasant and trustworthy

this training, nominations are made by the children with the only restriction that the nominee shall be approved by the staff.¹ Each candidate has to have a proposer and seconder, and by Nomination Day the nomination lists are completed. The day or two which elapses between putting up the lists and Nomination Day not only gives the children time to write up the names of their candidates but time for second thoughts. Sometimes, for example, a name that was originally put down is removed before the closing date and another put in to take its place. While Junior children are not nominated as candidates they frequently propose or second the older children and take an active part in the proceedings.

On Nomination Day the nominees with their two supporters are received by the Town Clerk (a teacher) and sworn in. This little ceremony is taken seriously by the candidates who take an oath with right hand, upraised as follows:

I, . . ., do hereby swear that in seeking election I will use no force nor violence, no bribery nor corruption. If elected I promise to work hard and do the utmost for the good of my House.

The nominee then signs the candidates' register; against his or her name are the signatures of the proposer and seconder, the entry is stamped and certified by the Town Clerk and the nominee becomes an official candidate for election. Each candidate has to make a deposit of 3d. which is forfeited if he or she receives less than one eighth of the total votes of the house.

The Election Campaign

Between Nomination Day and Polling Day the candidates and their supporters carry out a vigorous electioneering campaign. Posters are prepared and prominently displayed throughout the school; some of these illustrate the prowess of the

¹ The staff now merely reserve the right of veto should a nomination be considered particularly unsuitable. This right has not yet been exercised, a comment both on the standard of selection of the children and width of outlook of the staff.

candidates or the height to which he or she hopes to lead the house, others consist of short slogans such as 'VOTE FOR SMITH, THE MARVEL MAN', or 'BETTS IS BEST'.

House and general school meetings are also held at which candidates and their sponsors address groups of children of various ages. Juniors and Seniors alike make impromptu speeches in support of their favourite candidate and answer questions fired at them by members of their house. Various programmes and suggestions for the future activities of the houses are put forward at such meetings, the speakers standing on boxes and attracting large audiences which are generally interested and always amused.

A twelve-year-old boy in a vigorous speech said '... I will want your help. I want Team Work, not only on days like Sports Days but on every day of the term. We could arrange matches ... All these things can be done, not by me, but by YOU!' Speeches from the Junior children have not of course as much force as this. One little girl of nine in an attempt to win support for her nominee said, 'I offer to knit a net for the tennis games. I say I will do some drawings for the magazine and lend my table tennis set'.

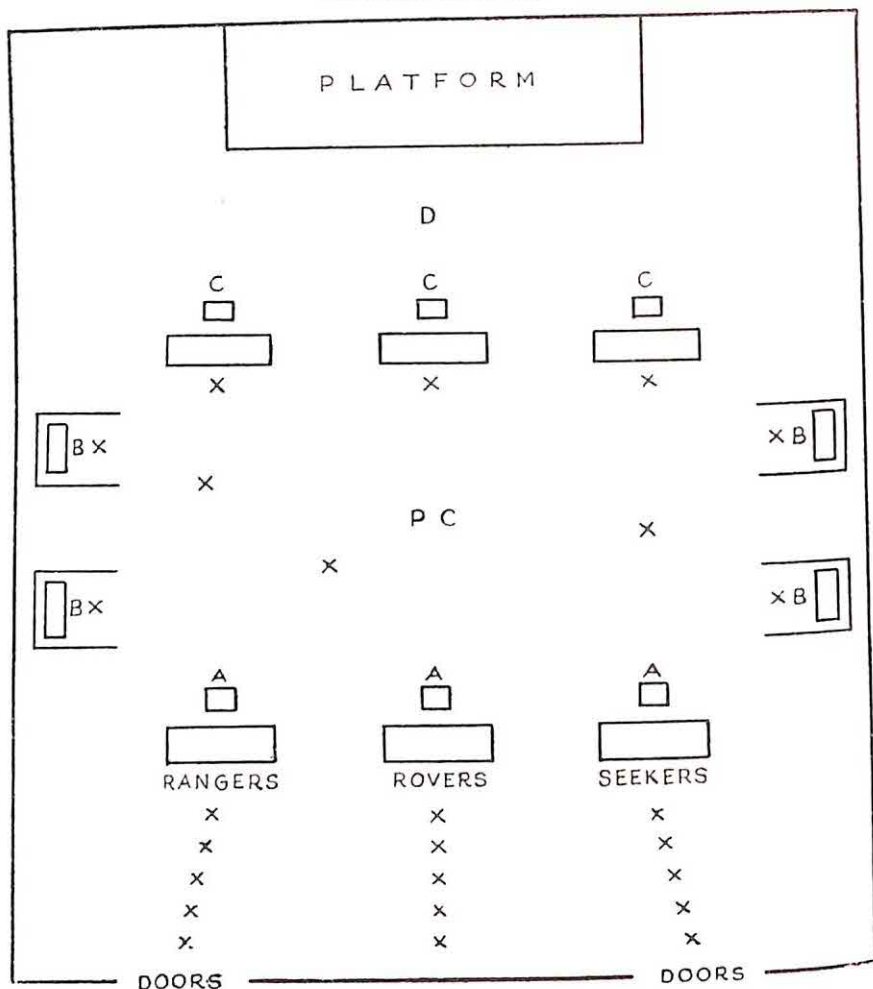
During these days, too, the younger children are instructed by the candidates how to fill in the ballot paper.¹ Small groups of these Junior children are collected round a blackboard, shown how to fill in the form and where, if they will only take his advice, they should put their mark.

Polling Day

The hall is converted into the Polling Station for all the 'Wards'. Screens are arranged at the sides to form polling booths; desks are placed at points on the floor of the hall at which the 'clerks' check names on the electoral rolls and issue ballot papers. Two clerks officiate for each house; a Returning Officer (one of the teachers) supervises and a 'policeman'

¹ See Plate xva, facing p. 147.

DIAGRAM 24
POLLING STATION



A—Clerks checking electoral roll
B—Polling Booths
C—Clerks in charge of Ballot Boxes

D—Returning Officer
P.C.—'Policeman'
X—Voters

patrols the polling station to quell any disorders and to ensure secrecy of voting.

Electoral rolls are made out and ballot papers supplied to

each house. The ballot papers are made out in the proper form; they are typed by the Head Master but drawn off the duplicating machine by the children. Some examples of the forms used are given below.

BALLOT PAPER RANGERS GIRLS	
Record your vote by putting X against 2 names, and 2 only	
Gregory B.	
Horton E.	
Pulford A.	
Scott N.	
Thornley M.	

BALLOT PAPER SEEKERS BOYS	
Record your vote by putting X against 1 name, and 1 only	
Betts J.	
Currie N.	
Daly R.	
Powell T.	

Each voter goes to the Poll Clerk (A) of his own house, gives his name and is checked and ticked off on the electoral register. He is then given a ballot paper which he takes to one of the booths (B) where he records his vote. Then, folding his paper, he goes to the second clerk (C) of his house who guards the ballot box and slips in his paper.¹

The work of the school in the meantime goes on as usual except for the candidates and their supporters who, acting as 'whippers-in', go round the classes urging all to exercise their right to vote. One hour is allowed for the voting and at the time announced on the writ the ballot boxes are sealed and handed to the Returning Officer.

The Count

Tellers are appointed and under the supervision of the Town Clerk and the Returning Officer the ballot box seals are broken and the votes counted. Sometimes the results are very close; in a recent election, for example, three recounts were

¹ Plate xvb, facing p. 147.

necessary before the officials were satisfied that the figures were correct.

A school meeting is called generally the next day when the results are announced. In those cases where both captain and vice-captain have to be elected the candidate polling the highest number of votes is declared elected captain of the house and his or her nearest competitor is declared elected vice-captain. This is the occasion for many speeches by both successful and unsuccessful candidates. One scholar writing an account of the proceedings says: 'Amid loud and prolonged cheers each boy captain and girl captain rose to speak. They were followed by the vice-captains, and by the unsuccessful candidates who pledged their support. A vote of thanks to the officials who had conducted the elections closed the proceedings.'

The results of the election on the occasion when the ballot papers above were used were announced as follows:

Results of RANGERS HOUSE. GIRLS

N. Scott (captain)	21 votes
M. Thornley (vice-captain)	16 votes
E. Horton	14 votes
B. Gregory	9 votes
A. Pulford	1 vote

N. Scott is declared duly elected captain

M. Thornley is declared duly elected vice-captain

Results of SEEKERS HOUSE. BOYS

J. Betts (vice-captain)	23 votes
N. Currie	10 votes
R. Daly	2 votes
T. Powell	1 vote

J. Betts is declared duly elected vice-captain

Candidates who polled one eighth or more of the number of votes recorded are informed that their deposits would be refunded on application to the Borough Treasurer's Office. In

one recent election four out of twenty-three candidates forfeited their deposits which with the consent of the children were added to the School Fund; in another election two out of thirteen candidates forfeited their deposits.

Although the principal figures in these elections are Senior pupils Junior children take an active part in the proceedings. They may propose or second candidates and they make speeches to their own class or to their own house in support of their favourite nominee. Candidates give them instruction as to election procedure and all older scholars help them to use their ballot papers properly. Every Junior child is entitled to vote and recently this right has been extended to the six-year-olds. It speaks well of the efforts of the older children that, as a rule, less than 1 per cent of ballot papers are spoilt and of the enthusiasm of all that the votes cast represent 100 per cent of the possible total.

These elections have been of value in many ways. They have helped to maintain interest in the houses and in house activities all through the year, whereas previously there was a tendency for interest to be roused only on such occasions as Sports Days. They provide opportunities for 'speech-making' which has become an important feature of the school. The value of this is reflected in the ease with which children will get up to welcome a visitor or to propose a vote of thanks in a speech which although unprepared is fluent and lucid. Captains and vice-captains frequently take charge of School Assembly and make announcements.

The children have to exercise their own judgment, too, in casting their votes. They hear speeches from all candidates and they have to select which candidate seems to them to offer the most good for their house. In the most recent elections an interesting sidelight on this exercise of judgment is shown by the success of a senior first-year boy of eleven years of age. He failed to gain the captaincy by one vote only in competition with a boy two years his senior and qualified, therefore, for the vice-captaincy. This close result is particularly remarkable

since the older boy is outstanding as a footballer and cricketer, and suggests that the children are looking for something more than athletic prowess.

Not least valuable is the experience these children gain through living in a community run on democratic lines and by taking part in these elections they begin to understand the responsibility they will have to shoulder in a few years' time when they exercise their vote and play their part in civic and national affairs.

B. A CHILDREN'S PARLIAMENT¹

Another experiment in citizenship is being carried out in a Primary School for children of three to eleven. This school was built in 1934 to serve a new housing estate. There are about 500 children and the numbers so far exceed the accommodation that two classes have to be housed in the adjoining Senior Girls' School. This has not, as might have been expected, destroyed the unity of the community, but it has created difficulties in maintaining unity. The unifying link in this case is the principle of self-government upon which the discipline of the Junior section of the school is based.

The Junior and Infant sections of the school are treated as independent units² and the social training associated with self-government principles is confined to the four age groups 7 + to 10+.

There are four houses — Cavell, Gordon, Nelson and Nightingale. Each house has a captain and vice-captain who are elected by the whole Junior School and who hold office for the year. The problem of children leaving during the year does not arise in this school, as it does in the school just described, so that there is rarely need for elections during the school year.

Besides captains and vice-captains of houses there is a captain and vice-captain of the school. All the children in the ten to eleven age group are eligible for election to any of these

¹ Cf. p. 80.

² See p. 30.

offices. The elections are held towards the end of the summer term. The children first vote for a captain. This is done in each class, the names being written on small pieces of paper. The child who secures the largest number of votes becomes the captain of the school and the one with the next largest number becomes the vice-captain. All the junior children vote for these two offices but the house captains and vice-captains are elected only by members of the house concerned.

At the beginning of the new school year the house captains distribute the new entrants amongst the different houses. The help of four members of the staff, who hold the offices of house mistresses, is sought to ensure as even a distribution of boys and girls as possible. Sometimes if it turns out that one house has two or three children who are always getting into trouble and losing marks for the house, while another house has several especially good people some adjustment may be made during the year, but as a rule children remain in the same house during the whole of their junior school career.

The function of the officers is to keep order and to see that the few rules of the school are obeyed. They are also authorized to give 'points' for good work or behaviour, but they are not allowed to give 'order marks' for bad behaviour. This is viewed with some disapproval by the captains who have argued about it on more than one occasion. Order marks can only be given by teachers. If a child loses five or more points for his house he automatically receives an order mark; a child may be given an order mark outright for disobedience or for violating the accepted standard of school behaviour. A child who has received an order mark has forfeited the privileges of the school and is put out of his or her house; while not attached to his house the child may not take part in the social life of the school or in events such as sports. The child is allowed back into the house when the order mark has been cancelled by good behaviour. Badges are awarded for particularly good behaviour or reliability in performing social duties or for good achievement in games.

Besides captains and vice-captains, monitors are appointed. These children have certain social duties to perform such as looking after the milk, seeing to the garden, helping with the canteen, filling ink bottles, keeping the lawn tidy, getting the classrooms ready for lessons, supervising the cloakrooms and doing little jobs for the Nursery class. As many children as possible in the ten to eleven age group have some duty connected with the social life of the school so that they gain a sense of their responsibility as members of a community.

The Children's Parliament

Every Friday the captains collect the house points from each class and find out who has won badges and who has been given order marks. This information is required for the most important function of the week — the 'Parliament'.

This parliament is held by the children to discuss the events of the past week and future policy. The members consist of the school captain and vice-captain and the captains and vice-captains of the houses. The meeting is held in any room that happens to be available. Sometimes it is the medical room, sometimes the hall, and sometimes a classroom. From time to time the parliament may be held with an audience of children who may take part in any discussion. The class teacher may be present, and if she should be there her function is that of a member of the general public and not of the parliamentary body, but there may be no member of staff at all.

The meeting is informal in the sense that there is no written agenda and that no minutes are taken; but there is sufficient formality for the children to learn to 'address the chair' and for the chairman to learn how to keep a meeting in order and to the point. A chairman is elected at each meeting so that both girls and boys have an opportunity of taking the parliament.¹ The chairman begins the proceedings with the announcement 'Parliament is now open', followed by the list of items to be

¹ See Plate xvia, facing p. 148.

discussed. At a recent meeting four topics were under discussion.

- 1 What should be done when balls bounce through the school railings on to the road?

It was decided that either the teacher on duty or one of the captains should be asked to get the ball. Only the school captain and the house captains should go out on to the road.

- 2 The authority of captains to give points and order marks. There was some criticism of one member of staff who did not allow captains to give points. The children finally decided to approach the teacher concerned and assure him that the captains were sufficiently reliable not to allow favouritism to influence their judgment.

- 3 The formation of a Poetry Club.

It was agreed that one should be formed but the day it could be held would have to be decided in consultation with the Head Mistress.

- 4 A monitor for the garden.

This office had not been filled and the need for one was becoming very evident. A child from the audience (*the rest of the top class*) volunteered to take on this duty and was appointed to the post.

Other topics which have been discussed from time to time are:

Order in the corridors — how to check roughness.

Should Physical Training for boys and girls be separate?

The production of plays.

Arrangements for electing new children into the houses.

Arrangements for house meetings.

Punctuality.

Discipline on the School Buses.

Sometimes the discussion gets quite heated and everyone talks together. Recently, for example, two events created some dissatisfaction amongst the children and both were raised at the parliament. The following verbatim extracts of this meeting

give some idea of how these ten-year-old children manage their affairs.

During the week there had been a big Schools Sports Rally at which, owing to an oversight, some of the children who had entered were not able to run. This was the subject of the first item on the agenda.

CHAIRMAN Parliament is now open.

The first item on the agenda is the Sports. We had quite a lot of mishaps on Wednesday afternoon. First Miss S did not give the book to Mr. R which had the numbers in and when we got there we got turned out of the races.

BERYL Who else got turned out?

SEVERAL I did . . . I did . . . I did . . .

CHAIRMAN Quite a lot of the jury¹ did as well.

COLIN It was quite cold standing there, wasn't it?

CHAIRMAN Yes.

TONY What was the cause?

CHAIRMAN The numbers. Miss S did not give the book to Mr. R so that when we got there we were told we could not race.

STELLA She cannot remember everything — she got mixed up with the Rose Queen.²

COLIN Couldn't any of the captains do it, or any of IVb?

ERIC I thought there was a captain of the sports club.

DOROTHY What was the excuse for not giving the book to Mr. R?

CHAIRMAN Miss S was busy when the man brought the book.

Quite frankly I don't blame Miss S. She has such a lot to do with the Rose Queen. I think the captains ought to help.

STELLA Most of us didn't know about the sports and the book.

CHAIRMAN Well, Edna and I saw the book on the desk but we thought Mr. R had it. When we got there and looked through the book of names we could not see ours there.

COLIN Whose fault was it really?

CHAIRMAN Miss S's fault really, but she was practising the Rose Queen, so she couldn't be there.

COLIN Miss S said she ought to have her head chopped off.

¹ The audience is called the jury.

² A festival held every summer.

BARBARA Well, I think the captains ought to do something.

When the letters come I think the captains could be trusted.

STELLA I think we should appoint somebody — one of the captains.

(Then followed some discussion about badges)

CHAIRMAN Let us get back to the sports. I think really that we cannot blame Miss S as she had to do quite a lot, and this Rose Queen to look after, and she has such a lot of things on her mind, letters, and the telephone ringing.

TONY I think we ought to be cleared out of the room when she wants to speak on the 'phone. The teachers are always asking the captains to keep the children away, but they won't keep away.

COLIN The captains ought to be stricter I think.

DOROTHY Yes, but sometimes they don't take any notice of you when you tell them.

COLIN Some of them are so cheeky.

DOROTHY There is ———. He is a nuisance that lad, and so is his brother.

CHAIRMAN Let us get back to the subject. I think really we cannot blame Miss S. I think the captains ought to have a little more to do and help Miss S a little more.

Do we all agree on that?

SEVERAL Yes.

BERYL I don't really agree with that, Barbara, because I think the children who are going in for a scholarship next year will have more lessons and less time.

(Here followed an argument on which children were sufficiently free to help, and the respective abilities of boys and girls)

CHAIRMAN Let us get back to the subject. Who agrees that we do help Miss S in our spare time?

EVERYBODY I do.

CHAIRMAN The next item is examinations which Stella brought up. Twice a year we have examinations and they last for two days.

TONY Now I think if we had one examination at Midsummer it would be a lot better.

COLIN I don't agree. Perhaps some girls don't like sitting next

to the boys and the boys next to the girls, and if you are there for long you are fed up.¹

ERIC Yes, you have got to stay in the same place.

EDNA During the term you might go better or worse and you want to know.

TONY Yes, I think we ought to have one every two months, and then we could change places.

STELLA We could change places without an examination.

BERYL If we did it on our own we should be sitting next to our friends and talking and have no chance to do any work.

DOROTHY It is better really to have them every month, and then we would know whether we are going wrong.

COLIN I don't agree where you said once every term. It is best every two months.

(Joan, a member of the audience stood up to speak)

CHAIRMAN Yes, Joan?

JOAN I think we ought to have an examination for two days, one at Christmas and one at Midsummer, and for other months have a test.

BERYL Yes, and change places round.

STELLA I wouldn't say for two days. I think it would be better to have problems one day, and then a rest, not all on one day.

TONY Yes, but they may have to alter the time-table to fix it up.

STELLA I think we ought to have two large examinations at the end of the two terms Christmas and Midsummer. Miss S gives that one out. Every other month we could have a test to change places round.

CHAIRMAN Yes, Joan?

JOAN You are talking about dictation. The people in our class who have not gone in for the scholarship — I think they should have a bit easier one than the people sitting at the back of the room because the people at the back are usually cleverer than the ones in front.

TONY It would not be fair that — we are all the same age. The dunces would get to the top while the clever ones would drop.

¹ It appears that in this school seats are determined by the results of tests.

DOROTHY Except that some people cannot read so very well on their own.

ERIC I don't agree with what Joan said because I think we should all try to do the same thing.

(Audrey in the audience stood up)

CHAIRMAN Yes, Audrey?

AUDREY Couldn't the teachers do as Mrs. C used to do? She used to put the dictation on the board first and let them learn it. Then blame them for the mistakes. She used to do that. Then they cannot say they don't know it.

TONY If I rubbed all that off which has been on two days you would not be able to do it.

AUDREY Some of them might not know what is on the board. It is just to look over the words and see if they can spell them.

Then if they get the words wrong it is their own fault.

TONY I don't think Mrs. C should do that in an examination.

AUDREY She didn't do it in an examination.

CHAIRMAN Yes, Joan?

JOAN I don't agree there, for some people may have a paper and write down all the hard words.

DOROTHY I sat next to a girl once in Class II and she wrote the words down on her hand and every day when we had dictation she used to look at the words on her hand and get her dictation right. Miss S thought her clever. One day she was found out and got into trouble, and she has never done it again.

STELLA I sat next to you in Miss S's class.

DOROTHY Yes, but it wasn't you.

(Further discussion of this dishonest practice!)

CHAIRMAN Well, I think we ought to have an examination each month.

BERYL I don't think we should have an examination each month at all. Say two months.

COLIN I think three.

CHAIRMAN We seem to be making it from one month to three, so I say you might as well leave it to the two months.

THE TEACHER Madam Chairman, I am sorry to stop you but the buses¹ are here.

CHAIRMAN I agree that we have it every two months. To settle it we will have to vote.

Who agrees two months	17	(<i>show of hands</i>)
-----------------------	----	--------------------------

One month	6
-----------	---

Three months	8
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Well, it is two months then.

(*Standing*) Parliament is closed.

The Children's Court

After the parliament has finished its business a 'Children's Court' is held. The first business is to determine whether any children have persistently ignored the unwritten laws of the school. There has to be unanimous agreement on this point before any child is brought before the court. When this has been agreed a runner is chosen to call the culprits. The chairman of the meeting tells the child why he or she has been summoned and gives him an opportunity of explaining his behaviour. If the explanation is satisfactory he is let off with a warning but if not he is admonished by two or three members of the parliament and given a number of lines to write. These have to be done in the child's own time and signed by the school captain.

Sometimes of course seven-year-old children who cannot write easily are brought before the court. When this happens the teacher who is usually present for this part of the proceedings rebukes the child as well. Sometimes, too, a child will treat the court as rather a joke and not pay much heed to the authority of the captains but as a rule the disapproval of their own schoolfellows acts as a strong deterrent to bullying and roughness and has a very salutary effect.

¹ Buses take the long-distance children home.

Assemblies

The captains and vice-captains also take a part in the Friday assembly. All the captains make little speeches ending with the announcement of the points by the captain of the winning house. The school captain follows with a short speech making some announcement or welcoming some visitor. At a recent Assembly the school captain, standing on a platform with her hands behind her, addressed the whole Junior School in a voice that could be heard easily at the back of the hall and in a manner completely natural and unselfconscious, said 'I'm very disappointed with —— House'.¹

The captains also take charge of prize giving on Sports Days² and at the last Assembly of the year hand on their badges of office to their successors.

By monitors' duties in each class the children learn gradually during their Junior School career to shoulder responsibility, so that by the time they reach their fourth year they are capable of taking a large part in the running of their school.

See Plate xvic, facing p. 148.

² See Plate xvib, facing p. 148.

VII. THE WAY AHEAD

IN spite of many set-backs and much discouragement Primary School education has made great progress during the seventy years of State control. How much progress is shown by the difference between the methods of teaching Scripture through such verses as 'The Ten Commandments'¹ in Isaac Watts's time and through the writing of puppet plays such as 'Namaan, the Syrian'² to-day; or by the difference between the copybook of thirty years ago and the 'Story of Bambi'³ written by seven-year-old children.

But work of this kind is the exception rather than the rule and the very teachers whose work is described here are themselves fully aware that there is much still to be learnt and a long way to go before Primary education in its sphere reaches a level comparable to that of the best Grammar Schools in their sphere.

Some of the work described does not carry out all the principles enunciated in the first part of the book, but all of it fulfils some of the principles and all of it represents an attempt to bring a wider and more real education to Junior children and has been achieved during the years of war when staffing, equipment and accommodation problems made experiment so difficult.

The time is favourable to rapid progress. The Education Act has opened the door. Teachers must seize the opportunity and from beginnings such as those described in this book and from others being carried out in different parts of the country they must push ahead with a wider vision of the needs of young children and a determination to make full use of the freedom which liberation from the competitive examination at 11+ should bring.

¹ See p. 13.

² See pp. 260-264.

³ See Plate IX, facing p. 141.

APPENDIX I

LIST of the most important Parliamentary Bills, Societies established for the promotion of education and Government Pamphlets on educational matters between 1800 and 1900.

- 1797 Publication of *An Experiment in Education*, Dr. Bell.
- 1802 Health and Morals of Apprentices Act, 1802.
- 1803 Foundation of the Sunday School Union.
- 1804 The Society for Bettering the Condition and Increasing the Comforts of the Poor asked for Government inquiry into the work of endowed Charity Schools.
- 1807 Poor Law Reform Bill — Subsection Parochial Schools Bill 1807, introduced by Mr. Whitehead.
- 1808 Foundation of the Royal Lancasterian Institute.
- 1808 Publication of Dr. Bell's plan for a national system of education for the poor.
- 1811 Foundation of the National Society for the Education of the Poor in the Principles of the Established Church.
- 1814 Foundation of the British and Foreign School Society.
- 1816 Formation of a select Committee of the House of Commons to inquire into education over the country of the poorer classes. The inquiry lasted from 1816 to 1819.
- 1818 Royal Commission (Brougham) on Educational Charities, in office until 1837.
- 1820 Lord Brougham's Bill for the better education of the poor.
- 1825 Books on Lessons in Geography and Grammar published.
- 1830 Publication of *Lessons on Objects*, Miss Mayo.
- 1832 Reform Act.
- 1833 Factory Act.
- 1833 First Parliamentary Grant to Education.
- 1834 New Poor Law.

- 1836 Formation of the Central Society of Education.
- 1839 Establishment of a Committee of the Privy Council to administer grants.
- 1839 Proposal for State Training College brought before Parliament by Sir James Kay-Shuttleworth.
- 1840 Training School opened at Battersea.
- 1840 Plans of Schools published by the Government.
- 1842 Establishment of a Committee on the Employment of Children.
- 1843 Factory Bill, introduced into Parliament but not passed.
- 1844 Factory Act.
- 1846 Grants to Teachers' salaries agreed.
- 1846 Conditions of Grant defined by the Government.
- 1846 Pupil Teacher system established by Committee in Council.
- 1847 Grant allowed for books, maps, etc., and for hiring land for gardens, and the building of workshops for manual instruction.
- 1851 Exhibition in Paris of Industrial Products.
- 1855 Formation of a Government Department of Education.
- 1858 The Duke of Newcastle's Commission which sat until 1861.
- 1860 The First Code.
- 1861 The Revised Code.
- 1864 Formation of the Manchester Educational Aid Society.
- 1867 The Revised Code Modified.
- 1870 The Elementary Education Act, 1870.
- 1871 The New Code.
- 1873 The Elementary Education Act, 1873.
- 1874 The Elementary Education (Orders) Act, 1874.
- 1876 The Elementary Education Act, 1876.
- 1880 The Elementary Education Act, 1880.
- 1882 Code of Regulations greatly modified.
- 1882 Royal Commission on Technical Education.

- 1884 Conference on Educational Matters.
- 1888 The Cross Commission.
- 1889 Technical Instructions Act, 1889.
- 1890 The Elementary Code (1890) Act, 1890.
- 1890 Grant for Technical Education.
- 1890 Local Taxation (Customs and Excise) Act, 1890.
- 1891 The Elementary Education Act, 1891.
- 1891 Technical Instructions Act, 1891.
- 1893 The Elementary Education (Blind and Deaf Children)
Act, 1893.
- 1896 The Agricultural Rates Act, 1896.
- 1897 The Voluntary Schools Act, 1897.
- 1897 The Elementary Education Act, 1897.
- 1899 The Elementary Education (Defective and Epileptic
Children) Act, 1899.
- 1899 Establishment of the Board of Education.
- 1899 Establishment of the Consultative Committee.
- 1900 The Elementary Education Act, 1900.
- 1902 The Education Act, 1902.

APPENDIX II

PLANS OF SCHOOLS

COMMITTEE OF COUNCIL MINUTES 1839-1840,
PLANS OF SCHOOL HOUSES

THE Government pamphlet on School Buildings produced in 1840 consisted entirely of plans of schools. Every size and type from the tiny country school to the training college was illustrated. The plans, which were designed by different architects, were drawn out in great detail. In most cases four plans were given — a block plan, a detailed plan of the teacher's house and the school, illustrating the mixed type of organization advocated by Sir J. Kay-Shuttleworth, and two other plans of the school rooms only showing alternative arrangements to suit the Lancasterian organization and the National (Bell's) type of organization. The following plans, simplified, show accommodation for a mixed school of 112 pupils, designed by Sampson Kempthorne, Architects, 36 Clarges Street, Piccadilly.

Diagram 1 shows the 'Mixed' type of organization. There are 4 classes, 2 of boys and 2 of girls, of approximately 28 children. The desks, 10 ft. 6 in. long, each seat 7 children. One master is in charge of two classes.

DIAGRAM I

MIXED TYPE

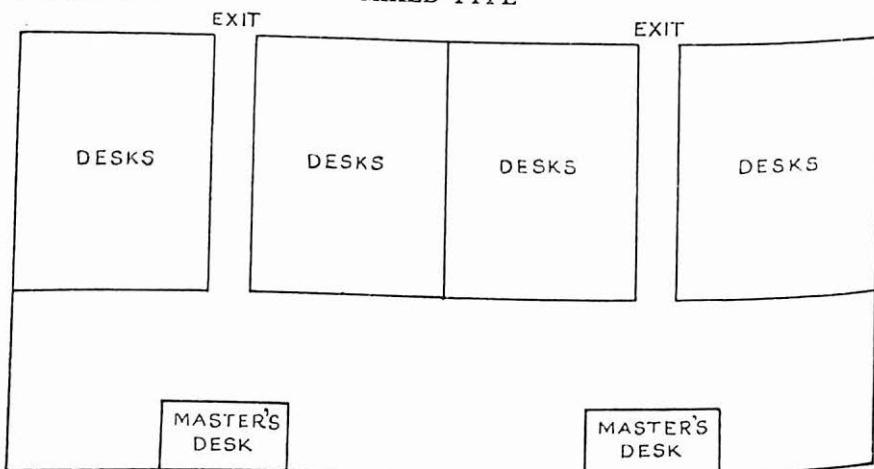


Diagram 2 illustrates Lancaster's plan. The room is divided by a partition with boys on one side and girls on the other. The desks are 12 ft. long, seating eight children and the semi-circles round the walls mark the position of the 'drafts'. The semi-circles are so arranged that the whole school could work in drafts at the same time, seven children making up each draft.

DIAGRAM 2

LANCASTERIAN TYPE

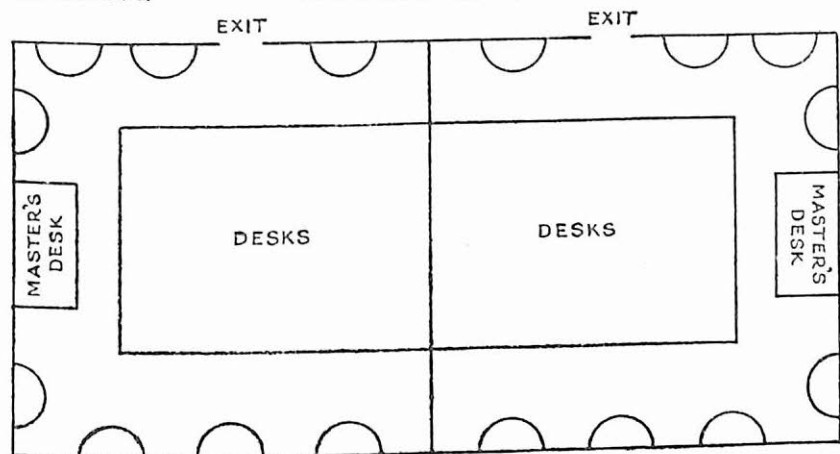
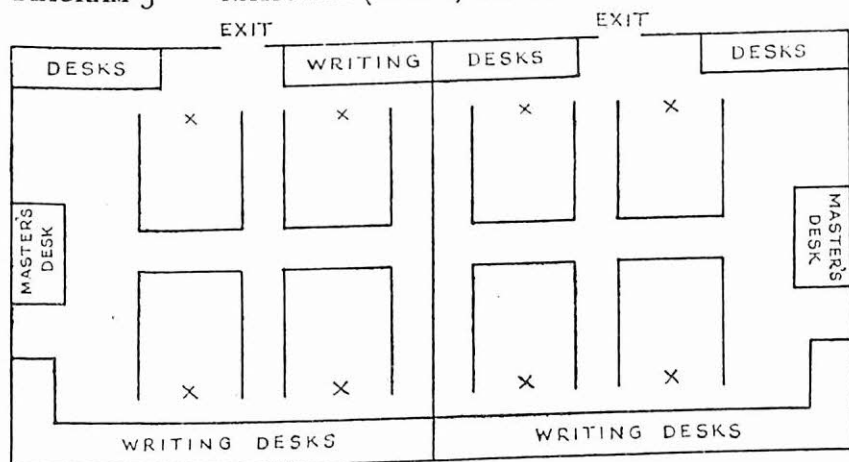


DIAGRAM 3

NATIONAL (BELL'S) SCHOOL TYPE



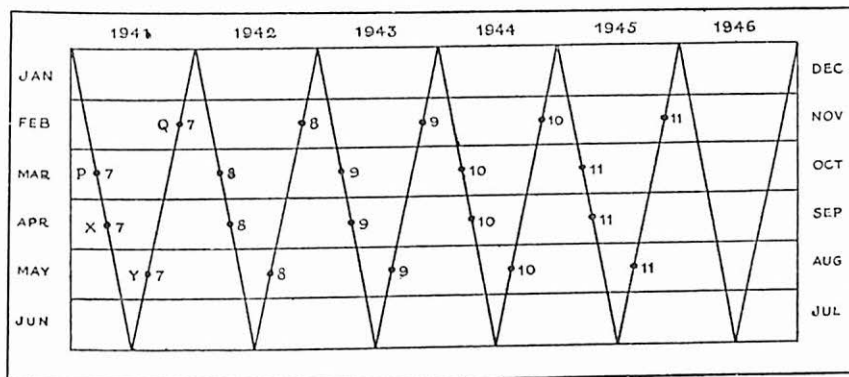
In Diagram 3 the room is arranged on Bell's plan. Boys and girls are separated as in the second diagram by a partition right across the room. The school is divided into eight classes of 14 children; no furniture is provided in the middle of the room so these children have to stand. X marks the position of the monitors. Writing desks line the walls of the room.

APPENDIX III

NOTES ON SCHOOL ORGANIZATION

Length of the Primary School Course

THE lack of uniformity in methods of determining transfers from an Infant to a Junior Department has resulted in great variation in the length of the Primary School Course. In some reorganized areas the Primary Course may begin at eight years of age, in others at seven, and unless the date from which this age is calculated is the same at the lower end of the Primary School as that used for transfer to Secondary education, the Primary School period may vary from two to five years.



The diagram represents a series of years. Each V represents one complete year, the down stroke from January to the end of June and the up stroke from July to the end of December. The horizontal bands represent the months.

Case 1. Age of transfer from Primary to Secondary School calculated from October 1st.

Age of transfer from Infants' to Primary School calculated from August 1st.

Child X whose birthday falls in April, will be seven before August 1st, 1941, and will proceed to the Primary School. He

will be eleven before October 1st, 1945, and will go to the Post-Primary School. His Primary School Course will have been four years.

Child Y, whose birthday falls in August, will not be able to go to the Primary School until 1942; but he will be eleven before October 1st, 1945, and he will proceed to the Post-Primary School therefore at the same time as Child X having had only three years in the Primary School.

When the date for calculating transfers from the Infant to the Primary department, therefore, is earlier than that used for transfer from the Primary to the Secondary department, those children whose birthdays lie between the two dates will have a year less in the Junior department than those whose birthdays fall in the remaining months of the year. If in these schools the age of transfer is eight instead of seven, that is, the normal course in the Primary School is three years, children who were born in August and September will have only two years in a Primary School.

Case 2. Age of transfer from Primary School to Secondary School calculated from October 1st.

Age of transfer from Infants' School to Primary School calculated from December 31st.

Child P, whose birthday falls in March, will be transferred to the Primary School in 1941. He will be eleven before October 1st, 1945, and will therefore go to the Secondary School after a four-year course.

Child Q, whose birthday falls in November, will proceed to the Primary School in 1941 since he will be seven before December 31st, 1941, but he will not be able to go to a Post-Primary School until 1946, because he will not be eleven before October 1st, 1945. He will therefore have a five-year course.

When the date for calculating transfer ages, from the Infants' to the Primary School, is later than that taken for transfer from the Primary to the Secondary School, children whose birthdays lie between the two dates will have a five-year course and those whose birthdays fall in the remaining part of the year will have

four years. If the Primary School Course begins at eight instead of seven then the children whose birthdays fall in October, November and December will have a four-year course and the rest a three-year course.

In case 1, it is the youngest children who have the shortest course and those amongst them who have low intellectual capacity are heavily penalized. The position is reversed in the second case since it is the youngest children who have the extra year. This may prove very valuable to the slower child but may penalize the quick one. It is clear, therefore, that unless ages for all transfers are calculated from the same date some children must inevitably suffer.

APPENDIX IV

NOTE ON MIXED AGE GROUPS

THE following example illustrates the difficulty of planning the curriculum in a school when the number of classes is at variance with the number of years covered by the course.

In a three-year Primary School the number of children transferred from the Infant department was 64. There were 5 classes in the school. Of the 64 children, 10 left before the end of the three years leaving 54 to pursue a complete course. Table 1 shows the careers of these children through the school.

TABLE I

The Course of one age group through a 3-year Primary (Junior) School

Complete Age Group 68		Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	Class 5	
Leavers 10		16	38				1st Year 54 children
			16 + 1	29	8		2nd Year 54 children
			1	8 + 1	2 + 29 + 8	5	3rd Year 54 children

This shows that the 54 children split up into 7 groups moving by different routes through the school. Table 2 shows the classes through which these 7 groups passed.

TABLE 2

Careers through the school of the seven groups of children

<i>Group</i>	<i>Classes</i>	<i>No. of children</i>
1	2, 3, 4	29
2	2, 4, 4	8
3	1, 2, 3	8
4	1, 2, 5	5
5	1, 2, 4	2
6	2, 2, 3	1
7	1, 2, 2	1
		54

To organize the curriculum so that a child neither repeats nor misses work is obviously difficult. For example, the work in Class 2 must be different in each of the three years. The work of Class 4 cannot be the same in the third year as in the second because of the 8 children of Group 2; but the second-year work of Class 4 should be the same as the second-year work of Class 3 because both the 29 of Group 1 and the 8 of Group 2 come together again in the third year and will need the same background. Class 4 syllabus, too, in the third year must follow on from the Class 2 syllabus of the second year to cater for the children in Group 5. It is clear, therefore, that schemes have to be modified each year in the light of the children's previous experience. When it is remembered, too, that the class is made up of children of other age groups also the problem becomes incapable of solution by the usual practice of portioning out the curriculum between the classes. The only possible solution is to cover the whole syllabus each year from different angles, each scheme being a unit in itself.

These problems only relate of course to factual subjects such as History, Geography, Nature Study, Religious Knowledge, etc.; subjects dependent on progressive stages can of course proceed at the pace of the individual child irrespective of his class.

APPENDIX V

EXAMPLES OF CHILDREN'S WORK

A. HOW AN INDOOR ROCK-GARDEN WAS MADE

A description written by a nine-year-old child.

OUR GARDEN

It was the tadpoles that made us think of the garden. At first we got the big tray but it was too big, so we got the smaller one. At last we set to work. Eric and I went down to Jackson's for bricks and rocks. Then we got soil out of IVA's garden. Then we put the tadpoles on and made it into a rock-garden. There are all kinds of flowers and twigs and at the side we have a Nature table.

B. DRAFT OF MIDDLE AGES FAIR

Draft of Middle Ages Fair containing the children's ideas and suggestions. Acted by the children in costume:

STAGE

Furs — Velvets

Lady

W
i
n
e
s

Stocks

Lord

S
p
i
c
e
s

READER In the Middle Ages — from about 1100-1400 — there were no pictures or theatres and there was no wireless. People amused themselves in other ways. What they enjoyed most was the Fair which took place once a year. It was really meant to be a market, but jugglers and

singers and dancers came as well to amuse the people and earn some money.

And now let us see who has come to the Fair held in the village of Merrymount!

(Enter Lord and Lady with servant)

First — here comes the Lord of the Manor and his wife and daughter. They rule the village and live in the castle.

LORD What have you come to buy, wife?

LADY Some silk for a new gown, my lord, and velvet for our daughter here, and some pepper and spices to cook with at the castle.

DAUGHTER And, father, please will you buy me a brooch, too, as you promised?

LORD *(to villen)* Come here, villen. Bring the merchants yonder and I will see what they have to sell.

FIRST MERCHANT I am from France, my Lord, and I have wines to sell.

SECOND MERCHANT I can sell your lordship pepper and spices — or currants and almonds that I have bought from the merchants in the East.

LORD I will speak with the other merchants.

THIRD MERCHANT If it is velvet or silk you want, here is silk all the way from India, and jewels and velvet too.

LORD You are the man I want. Bring a sample of what you are selling to the castle after we leave the fair. And now tell yonder holy man to come this way. *(Monk steps forward)* Good-day, father.

MONK And a good day it is for the fair.

I am here to buy spices and wines for the brothers at the Monastery, so I must hurry on my way. What is Rose in the stocks for?

VILLEIN For swearing.

MONK What a disgrace.

VILLEIN *(in crowd)* Look — here come the tumblers! Make way. Everybody make way.

TUMBLERS

VILLEIN And now the performing monkey.

MONKEY

VILLEIN I wonder if the minstrel has come to sing to us again!
Ah, yes — here he is.

MINSTREL This is a song about our good King Henry who has
gone hunting.

MINSTREL

VILLEIN Here come the jugglers — I wonder whether they will
be as good as last year!

JUGGLERS

MAN Stop thief! Stop thief! He has stolen my purse — catch
• him — (*Thief is caught*)

VILLEIN I wonder what will happen to him!

SECOND VILLEIN They will take him to the Court.

LORD'S DAUGHTER Oh, my lord, the dancers are getting ready
— it must be a ribbon dance.

DANCERS — SOLO DANCERS

READER And now, perhaps, we had better leave. It is getting
late. Good-bye! We have had some fun, and hope you
have enjoyed it too!

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